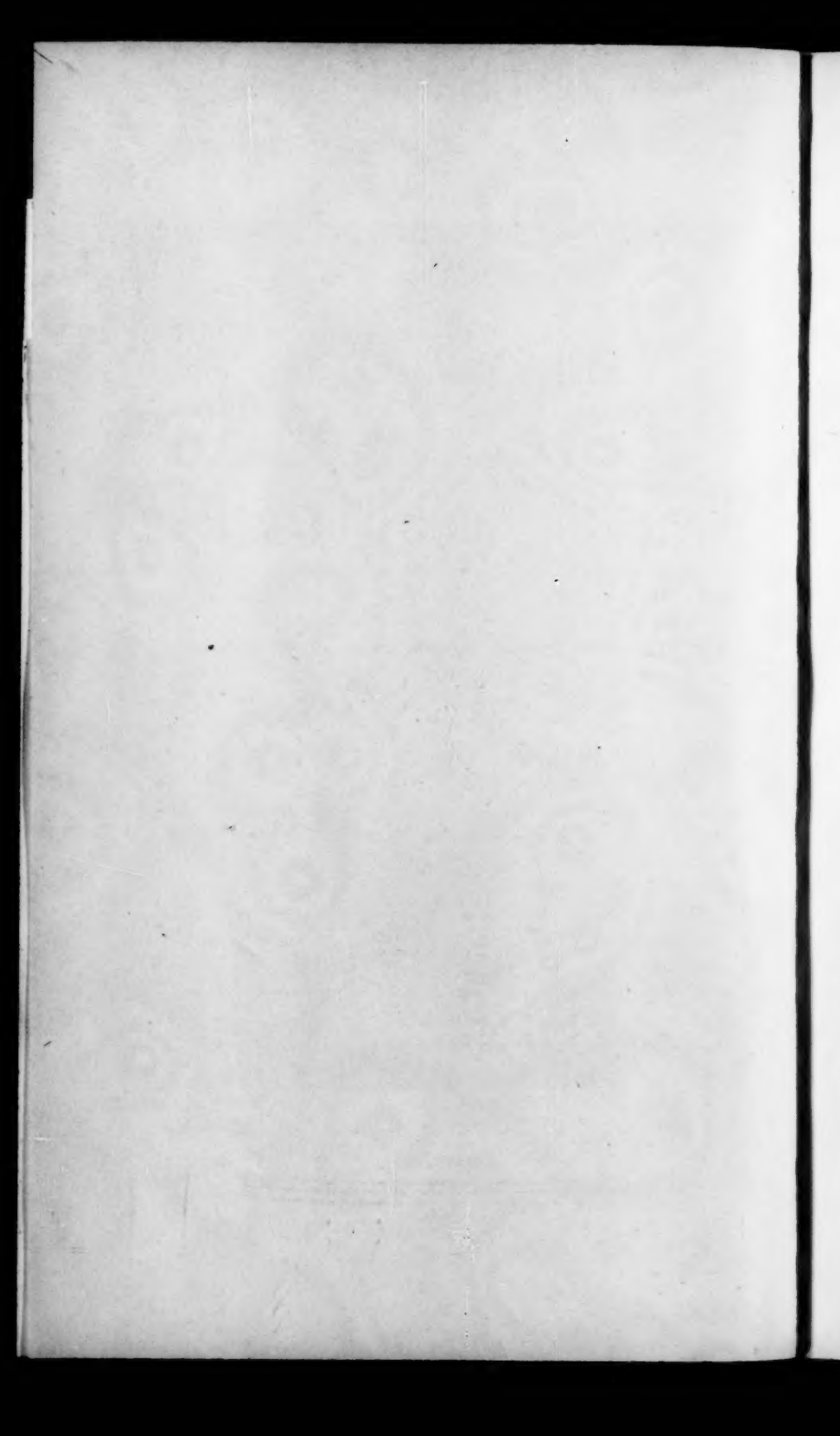


PROCEEDINGS
OF THE
NATIONAL CONFERENCE
OF
Charities and Correction,
AT THE
ELEVENTH ANNUAL SESSION, HELD AT ST. LOUIS,
OCTOBER 13-17, 1884.

EDITED BY
ISABEL C. BARROWS,
Official Reporter of the Conference.

BOSTON:
PRESS OF GEO. H. ELLIS, 141 FRANKLIN STREET,
1885.



PREFACE.

THE National Conference of Charities and Correction has apparently taken its place among the more important organized movements of the day in our country, and seems likely to exert a permanent and powerful influence in shaping the future growth of benevolent effort, both of a public and of a private character. Originally connected with the American Social Science Association, it was first called together as an independent body at Chicago, in 1879. Since then, meetings of the Conference have been held annually, at Cleveland, Boston, Madison, Louisville, and St. Louis. The next meeting is to be at Washington, in Willard Hall, June 4-10, 1885.

The Conference at St. Louis was in some respects superior in importance to any which have preceded it. Among the papers printed in the present volume, especial attention is directed to those by European writers on important questions. The oral discussions on all questions form a chapter by themselves. These should not be overlooked by readers of the more formal papers, since they contain much that is of the highest interest and value.

Among the topics which command the earnest study of those who have thus far taken part in the deliberations of the Conference may be mentioned the following: The condition and needs and the best methods of caring for the insane, the idiotic, the deaf, and the blind; the problem of pauperism and the principles upon which relief should be granted, both in and out of almshouses; the prison question, in all its bearings; the prevention of pauperism and of crime by suitable and effective measures for the care of neglected, exposed, and abandoned children; the organization of charity in cities; pauper emigration; the statistics of crime and misfortune; and the history of charitable enterprises in the several States.

The series of Proceedings, of which this is the Eleventh, contains a mass of information and wise suggestion relating to all these topics which, it is believed, is nowhere else equally accessible. Certainly, no student of these questions can afford to be without the entire series, if it had no other value than as an historical record of the growth of public opinion and the progress of thought.

Nothing has been more admirable in itself or more worthy of remark than the spirit in which members of the Conference have met each other in the performance of the duty which they have undertaken to discharge. The one thing they have desired to know is the truth, and the one thing they have desired to do is the right. On this basis, co-operation has been easy between men and women of the widest possible diversity of opinion and sentiment upon political and religious questions: no such difference has for one moment interrupted the harmony and good fellowship by which the meetings of the Conference have been characterized. No restriction has been allowed to fetter the absolute freedom of thought and of expression. The self-restraint exercised in refusing to formulate conclusions has quieted the fears of those who are unwilling to be bound by such formulas (either because of their inability to agree with them or because they tend to crystallize thought and impede its onward current), and has prevented occasions of strife and division. It has been understood that the Conference is simply an exchange for the comparison of views and experiences, not a convention for the adoption of any creed or platform, nor a body organized to accomplish any scheme or undertaking. The application, in practice, of the views and recommendations of individuals, whether in the majority or in the minority, is left to those who accept them, upon whom the responsibility of their practical application must rest. The effect of this policy has been breadth, catholicity, charity, freedom, and courtesy in all the debates of the Conference, whatever may have been the opinions held or the measures advocated by the speakers and writers. The influence exerted upon public sentiment has been perhaps all the more powerful because it has been indirect.

The questions studied have been approached both from their theoretical and their practical side. They have been examined with reference to their multiform relations to individuals and to the community, as questions of government, of social organization, of philanthropy, of political economy, of public policy, of education, and of moral and religious obligation.

The work of the Conference has been purely voluntary and gratuitous. It has never had a paid officer. It has paid the cost of publication of its own Proceedings, and has distributed them freely without charge. Whether it needs, or would be benefited by the creation of, a permanent fund, in the nature of an endowment, is a question with regard to which its members are not fully agreed; but there can be no doubt that aid of this character, from persons in sympathy with its work, would be accepted, if freely offered, and that a wise use might be made of such a fund, if sufficient to enable it to enter more extensively on the work of publishing and diffusing knowledge upon subjects which are acknowledged to be of vital consequence to the welfare of society, but may not interest the public at large.

The nucleus of this organization is the State Boards of Public Charities, who originated it and have given to it a semi-official character. The societies for the organization of charity in cities are also an important element in it. But it welcomes to its membership all persons officially or unofficially connected with charitable or correctional work of every description in every part of the Union; and every charitable institution or association in the country is invited to be represented at its meetings and take part in its deliberations. It has no formal constitution or conditions of membership, and no fee for entrance or annual dues. The governors of States in which there is no Board of Charities have been in the habit of sending delegates to its meetings, and they are requested to commission suitable persons to attend the meeting at Washington. That city has been selected with special reference to the convenience of the Southern States, and it is earnestly hoped that there will not be a single State or territory unrepresented there.

TABLE OF CONTENTS.

	PAGE
PORTRAIT OF REV. FRED. H. WINES, PRESIDENT OF THE TENTH CON-	
FERENCE,	iii
PREFACE,	vii
TABLE OF CONTENTS,	x
OFFICERS OF CONFERENCE FOR 1884,	xi
STANDING COMMITTEES FOR 1884,	xii
LOCAL COMMITTEE FOR 1885,	
I. OPENING SESSION:	
Address of Rev. W. G. Eliot, D.D.,	1
" " Hon. T. T. Crittenden,	1
" " Hon. W. L. Ewing,	4
" " Philip C. Garrett,	5
" " Rev. Fred. H. Wines,	7
" " President Hon. William P. Letchworth,	9
II. REPORTS FROM STATES:	
Report from Alabama,	20
" " Arkansas,	20
" " California,	21
" " Colorado,	22
" " Dakota,	22
" " District of Columbia,	24
" " Illinois,	27
" " Maine,	29
" " Massachusetts,	29
" " Michigan,	35
" " Minnesota,	41
" " Nebraska,	43
" " New Jersey,	45
" " New York,	46
" " Ohio,	49
" " Oregon,	52
" " Pennsylvania,	52
" " Rhode Island,	53
" " Tennessee,	54
" " Utah,	54
" " Vermont,	57
" " Wisconsin,	58
The Charitable Institutions of St. Louis, by Bishop C. F. Robertson,	59
Discussion of Reports from States,	322
" " " continued,	326

	PAGE
III. CHARITY ORGANIZATION :	
Address of Hon. Charles S. Fairchild,	65
Volunteer Visiting, by Zilpha D. Smith,	69
Almsgiving Societies, by L. S. Emery,	73
Relief Work, by W. Alexander Johnson,	77
Co-operation of the Churches, by Rev. C. R. Henderson,	80
Discussion of Charity Organization,	329
" " " " continued,	335
IV. REFORMATORIES AND HOUSES OF REFUGE:	
Report of Hon. A. E. Elmore,	84
The Management of Reformatories, by P. H. Laverty,	87
The Administration of Reformatories, by Charles Reemelin,	92
Discipline in Reformatories, by W. G. Fairbank,	100
Can we Save the Boys? By J. D. Scouller, M.D.,	102
Discussion on Reformatories,	346
V. CHILD-SAVING WORK:	
Introductory Address, by Hon. C. D. Randall,	115
Auxiliary Visitors, by Elizabeth C. Putnam,	123
Ten Years of Child-saving Work in Michigan, by John N. Foster,	132
Placing Out Children in the West, by Rev. Hastings H. Hart,	143
Summer Homes and Sanitaria near Large Cities, by C. Loring Brace,	150
The Catholic Charities of St. Louis, by Hon. Peter L. Foy,	159
The Abandonment of Children, by Madame Concepcion Arenal,	165
The Guardianship of Minors in Poland, by Alex. de Moldenhauer,	177
Reformatories for Youth in Sweden, by G. F. Almquist,	190
The Treatment of Juvenile Offenders, by Arthur G. Maddison,	195
Child-saving Work in England, by T. B. Ll. Baker,	200
Industrial and Technological Training, by Sarah Sands Paddock,	207
Discussion on Child-saving,	354
VI. PROVISION FOR THE INSANE:	
Compensation of Insane Labor, by Stephen Smith, M.D.,	222
The Increase of Insanity, by A. O. Wright,	228
Definition and Treatment of Insanity, by C. H. Hughes, M.D.,	236
Discussion on Insanity,	393
" " " continued,	397
VII. PROVISION FOR IDIOTS:	
Provision for Idiotic and Feeble-minded Children, by Isaac N. Kerlin, M.D.,	246
The Obligation of Civilized Society to Idiotic and Feeble-minded Children, by Hon. H. M. Greene,	264
Discussion on Idiocy,	366
VIII. PRISONS AND PENITENTIARIES:	
The Treatment of Criminals, by William Tallack,	272
Prisons and Penitentiaries in France, by Fernand Desportes,	276
Discussion on Prisons and Penitentiaries,	373
" " " " resumed,	383
IX. POLICE SUPERVISION :	
The Police and Juvenile Crime, by Frederick L. Jenkins,	285
Police Matrons, by Mrs. J. B. Hobbs,	293

X. POORHOUSES:

The Location, Construction, and Management of Poorhouses, by Hon. H. H. Giles,	295
The Management of Almshouses in New England, by F. B. Sanborn,	300
Discussion on Poorhouses,	363
" " " resumed,	370

XI. CLOSING SESSION:

Address of Henry Hitchcock,	307
" " Gen. W. T. Sherman,	308
" " Hon. William T. Letchworth,	311
" " Hon. Charles Anderson,	312
" " William Howard Neff,	314
" " Col. W. F. Beasley,	316
" " Bishop C. F. Robertson,	318
Closing remarks of Philip C. Garrett,	318

XII. MINUTES AND DISCUSSIONS:

First Session, Monday, October 13,	319
Announcement of Committees,	320
Second Session, Tuesday Morning,	321
Third Session, Tuesday Afternoon,	326
Fourth Session, Tuesday Night,	333
Fifth Session, Wednesday Morning,	345
Sixth Session, Wednesday Afternoon,	352
Seventh Session, Thursday Morning,	363
Eighth Session, Thursday Afternoon,	370
Ninth Session, Thursday Night,	380
Tenth Session, Friday Morning,	392
Eleventh Session, Friday Afternoon,	403
Twelfth Session, Friday Night,	407
Officers elected for 1885,	403

LIST OF MEMBERS,	409
INDEX OF SPEAKERS AND WRITERS,	415

APPENDIX:

Some Results of the Special Inquiry made in the Tenth Census into the Number and Condition of the Defective, Dependent, and Delinquent Classes,	416
---	-----

INDEX OF SUBJECTS,	431
------------------------------	-----

OFFICERS

OF THE

Conference of Charities and Correction,

FOR 1884.

President.

HON. WILLIAM P. LETCHWORTH, Buffalo, N.Y.

Vice-President.

RT. REV. C. F. ROBERTSON, St. Louis, Mo.

Recording Secretary.

PROF. A. O. WRIGHT, Madison, Wis.

Secretaries.

CHARLES S. HOYT, M.D., Albany, N.Y.

P. CALDWELL, Lewisville, Ky.

REV. H. H. HART, St. Paul, Minn.

Honorary Secretary.

REV. J. L. MILLIGAN, Allegheny, Penn.

Corresponding Secretaries.

<p>Rev. J. K. Mason, D.D., . . . Freyburg, Me. Joseph B. Walker, . . . Concord, N.H. W. G. Fairbank, . . . Vergennes, Vt. Joseph A. Allen, . . . Westborough, Mass. Lewis B. Smith, . . . Nayatt, R.I. George E. Howe, . . . West Meriden, Conn. Philip C. Garrett, . . . Philadelphia, Penn. E. M. Hunt, M.D., . . . Trenton, N.J. Rev. T. Gardiner Littell, . . . Wilmington, Del. Rev. A. G. Byers, . . . Columbus, Ohio. Rt. Rev. Augustus L. Bessonies, Indianapolis, Ind. Mrs. J. L. Beveridge, . . . Evanston, Ill. W. J. Baxter, . . . Lansing, Mich. Hon. H. H. Giles, . . . Madison, Wis. D. C. Bell, . . . Minneapolis, Minn. L. D. Lewelling, . . . Mitchellville, Ia. Ex-Gov. J. P. St. John, . . . Olathe, Kan. Mrs. J. S. Sperry, . . . Pueblo, Col. Judge John W. Henry, . . . Jefferson City, Mo. Daniel Gober, M.D., . . . Frankfort, Ky.</p>	<p>Peter Bryce, M.D., . . . Tuscaloosa, Ala. T. J. Mitchell, M.D., . . . Jackson, Miss. Judge John C. Ferris, . . . Nashville, Tenn. Ex-Gov. A. H. Colquitt, . . . Atlanta, Ga. Mrs. C. F. Ainslie, . . . Richmond, Va. Hon. G. W. Thompson, . . . Wheeling, W. Va. Gen. John B. Irwin, . . . New York City. H. V. Lucas, M.D., . . . Lancaster C.H., S.C. J. H. Mills, . . . Tallahassee, Fla. Mrs. Sara A. Spencer, . . . Thomasville, N.C. C. S. Griffith, . . . Washington, D.C. George E. Dodge, . . . Baltimore, Md. Hon. James McConnell, . . . Little Rock, Ark. Hon. L. Bradford Prince, . . . New Orleans, La. E. R. Highton, . . . Santa Fé, New Mex. J. A. Gillespie, . . . Alameda, Cal. Rev. Dr. G. H. Atkinson, . . . Omaha, Neb. Gen. M. M. Banc, . . . Portland, Ore. Ex-Gov. J. W. Hoyt, . . . Salt Lake City, Utah. Theodore D. Kanouse, Woonsocket, Dakota.</p>
--	--

STANDING COMMITTEES.

On Reports from States.

Rev. Fred. H. Wines, Chairman, Springfield, Ill.	Prof. A. O. Wright, . . . Madison, Wis.
Rev. J. L. Milligan, . . . Allegheny, Penn.	Rev. J. G. Wilson, D.D., . . . St. Louis, Mo.

On Charity Organization in Cities.

Hon. Charles S. Fairchild, Chairman, N. Y. City.	Prof. Francis Wayland, . . . New Haven, Conn.
C. P. Putnam, M.D., . . . Boston, Mass.	Miss M. A. Ross, . . . Chicago, Ill.
Mrs. E. B. Fairbanks, . . . Milwaukee, Wis.	Richard R. Elliott, . . . Detroit, Mich.
J. R. Sypher, . . . Philadelphia, Penn.	Hon. W. F. Bullock, . . . Louisville, Ky.
Rabbi S. H. Sonneschein, . . . St. Louis, Mo.	T. Guilford Smith, . . . Buffalo, N. Y.

On the Organization and Management of Reformatories and Houses of Refuge.

Hon. Andrew E. Elmore, Chairman, Fort Howard, Wis.	James V. Watson, . . . Philadelphia, Penn.
Rev. W. G. Eliot, D.D., . . . St. Louis, Mo.	F. M. Howe, . . . Providence, R. I.
Z. R. Brockway, . . . Elmira, N. Y.	W. G. Fairbank, . . . Vergennes, Vt.
Israel C. Jones, . . . Randall's Island, N. Y.	Solon Kendall, . . . Geneseo, Ill.
Levi S. Fulton, . . . Rochester, N. Y.	George E. Howe, . . . West Meriden, Conn.
H. L. Hoguet, . . . New York City.	C. A. Johnson, . . . Salem, Mass.
E. M. Partington, . . . New York City.	Gardiner Tufts, . . . Palmer, Mass.
Joseph A. Allen, . . . Westborough, Mass.	D. W. Ingersoll, . . . St. Paul, Minn.
Wm. H. Neff, . . . Cincinnati, Ohio.	James H. Eastman, . . . Jamesburg, N. J.
R. C. Davis, . . . Louisville, Ky.	J. D. Scouller, M.D., . . . Pontiac, Ill.
C. H. Bond, . . . Middletown, Conn.	Rev. B. W. Chidlaw, . . . Cleves, Ohio.
	Hon. Charles Reemelin, . . . Cincinnati, Ohio.

On the Organization and Management of Prisons and Penitentiaries.

Hon. Charles Anderson, Chairman, Kuttawa, Ky.	Hon. A. H. Young, . . . Minneapolis, Minn.
Rev. A. G. Byers, . . . Columbus, Ohio.	Judge John W. Henry, . . . Jefferson City, Mo.
Col. T. J. Lipscomb, . . . Columbus, S. C.	W. J. Hicks, . . . Raleigh, N. C.
Charles F. Coffin, . . . Richmond, Ind.	Ex-Gov. David H. Jerome, Saginaw City, Mich.
Miss Clara Barton, . . . Washington, D. C.	Gov. Robert Lowry, . . . Jackson, Miss.
Hon. Richard Vaux, . . . Philadelphia, Penn.	Eugene Smith, . . . New York City.

On Police System and Administration.

F. L. Jenkins, Chairman, . . . Brooklyn, N. Y.	Elmer Washburn, . . . Chicago, Ill.
Gen. Thomas H. Taylor, . . . Louisville, Ky.	Hon. John W. Andrews, . . . Columbus, Ohio.
	Mrs. J. K. Barney, Providence, R. I.

On the Organization and Management of Poorhouses.

Hon. H. H. Giles, Chairman, . . . Madison, Wis.	Gen. R. Brinkerhoff, . . . Mansfield, Ohio.
F. B. Sanborn, . . . Concord, Mass.	W. J. Baxter, . . . Lansing, Mich.
Hon. Samuel F. Miller, North Franklin, N. Y.	Rev. J. W. Bachman, . . . Chattanooga, Tenn.
Hon. George E. McGonegal, . . . Rochester, N. Y.	Hon. Thomas V. Bryant, . . . Kansas City, Mo.
	R. D. McGonnigle, Allegheny City, Penn.

On Provision for the Chronic Insane.

J. B. Chapin, M.D., Chairman, Willard, N. Y.	H. C. Rutter, M.D., . . . Columbus, Ohio.
R. C. Chenaunt, M.D., . . . Lexington, Ky.	T. R. H. Smith, M.D., . . . Fulton, Mo.
J. H. Vivian, M.D., . . . Mineral Point, Wis.	J. A. Reed, M.D., . . . Dixmont, Penn.
P. E. Griffin, M.D., . . . Columbia, S. C.	Peter Bryce, M.D., . . . Tuscaloosa, Ala.
R. H. Chase, M.D., . . . Norristown, Penn.	Stephen Smith, M.D., . . . New York City.
W. B. Goldsmith, M.D., . . . Danvers, Mass.	George C. Catlett, M.D., . . . St. Joseph, Mo.
	W. W. Godding, M.D., Washington, D. C.

On Provision for Idiots.

Isaac N. Kerlin, M.D., Chairman, Elwyn, Penn.	W. W. Reed, M.D., . . . Jefferson, Wis.
Mrs. C. R. Lowell, . . . New York City.	George H. Knight, M.D., . . . Faribault, Minn.
J. K. Rukenbrod, . . . Salem, Ohio.	G. A. Doren, M.D., . . . Syracuse, N. Y.
George G. Tarbell, M.D., . . . Boston, Mass.	Hon. H. M. Green, . . . Leavenworth, Kan.
	M. F. Coomes, M.D., Louisville, Ky.

On Child-Saving Work.

Hon. C. D. Randall, Chairman,	Coldwater, Mich.	Miss Ella A. Giles,	Madison, Wis.
Mrs. J. L. Beveridge,	Evanston, Ill.	Mrs. S. J. Smith,	Indianapolis, Ind.
Miss Elizabeth C. Putnam,	Boston, Mass.	Mrs. H. Wardner,	Anna, Ill.
Mrs. Clara T. Leonard,	Springfield, Mass.	Mrs. B. J. Miles,	Eldora, Ia.
Miss Dora B. Robinson,	Brooklyn, N.Y.	Mrs. M. E. Cooley,	Ann Arbor, Mich.
Mrs. L. D. Lewelling,	Mitchellville, Ia.	Miss A. K. Irving,	Charleston, S.C.
Miss Emily Huntington,	New York City.	Frederick N. Owen,	New York City.
Mrs. Sarah B. Coober,	San Francisco, Cal.	John H. Mills,	Oxford, N.C.
Mrs. M. J. Telford,	Denver, Col.	Rev. C. L. Brace,	New York City.
Mrs. W. N. Sage,	Rochester, N.Y.	Rev. H. H. Hart,	St. Paul, Minn.
Mrs. M. E. Rockwell Cobb,	Milwaukee, Wis.	Judge John C. Ferris,	Nashville, Tenn.
		Rev. R. W. Cridlin,	Portsmouth, Va.

Local Committee.

Rev. W. G. Eliot, D.D., C'man.	Rabbi S. H. Sonneschein.	Wallace Delafield.
Prof. M. S. Snow, Secretary.	Albert Todd.	Isaac M. Mason.
Henry Hitchcock.	Andrew Leslie.	Rev. W. W. Boyd, D.D.
Isaac H. Sturgeon.	Sylvester H. Laffin.	Rev. S. J. Nicolls, D.D.
Capt. Silas Bent.	G. E. Leighton.	Rev. C. L. Goodell, D.D.
George Partridge.	Prof. C. M. Woodward.	Rt. Rev. C. F. Robertson.
Edwin Harrison.	G. V. Schenck, M.D.	Rt. Rev. P. J. Ryan.
Samuel M. Kennard.	J. M. Leete, M.D.	Very Rev. Edward A. Higgins.
Peter L. Foy.	Charles A. Todd, M.D.	Wm. G. Hammond, L.L.D.
James E. Yeatman.	Charles E. Briggs, M.D.	Hon. G. A. Madill.
Wm. C. Ewing.	Henry Overstolz.	Rev. Truman A. Post, D.D.
J. O. Broadhead.	Joseph Franklin.	George H. Gill.
E. O. Stanard.	Richard M. Scruggs.	A. Frank.
Charles Gibson.	Samuel Cupples.	C. H. Hughes, M.D.

**Local Committee of National Conference of Charities and Correction
to be held in Washington, D.C., June, 1886.**

Hon. Arthur MacArthur,	Mrs. Janett Spofford.	W. W. Burdette.
Chairman, 1201 N St., N.W.	Geo. Ryneal, Jr.	Henry C. Spencer.
A. S. Pratt, Secretary,	Geo. W. Adams.	Elias S. Hutchinson.
401 9th Street, N.W.	Hon. W. B. Snell.	Mrs. Gen'l Ricketts.
Chas. S. Bradley, Treasurer	R. Ross Perry.	Mrs. Chas. Nordhoff.
National Bank of the Republic.	Rabbi L. Stern.	Matthew G. Emery.
The Honorable the Commis-	R. B. Kinsell.	Rt. Rev. Wm. Paret.
sioners of the District of Col-	Rev. Jabez Fox.	Prof. Sam'l Baird.
umbia.	E. K. Johnson.	Dr. J. M. Toner.
Prof. E. M. Gallaudet.	Geo. H. B. White.	H. S. Kauffman.
Dr. W. W. Godding.	Rev. A. F. Steele.	Surg. John S. Billings, U.S.A.
Hon. John Eaton.	S. Walter Woodward.	Herbert A. Gill.
B. H. Warner.	Rev. Rush R. Shippen.	Rev. P. L. Chappelle.
Gen. E. A. Carman.	B. Robinson.	Gen. McKee Dunn.
M. W. Beveridge.	Mrs. M. A. Copenhaver.	Mrs. McKee Dunn.
T. A. Harding.	Rev. Alex. Kent.	Mrs. Arthur MacArthur.
L. S. Emery.	Mrs. Jane C. Hitz.	Prof. Alex. Graham Bell.
Hon. A. G. Riddle.	Miss Clara Barton.	Mrs. Alex. Graham Bell.
A. S. Solomons.	Rev. Sam'l H. Green.	Miss K. S. Pratt.
John Sherman.	Rev. F. D. Power.	S. W. Curriden.
Chas. E. Foster.	Mrs. Jeannette Wright.	Edward B. Hay.
Maj. Wm. McKee Dye.	John F. Cook.	Stilson Hutchins.
E. B. Barnum.	Rev. J. G. Butler.	M. D. Helm.
Mrs. Sara A. Spencer.	Hon. D. K. Caarter.	Wm. M. Galt.
Mrs. Martha A. Snell.	Rev. Wm. A. Leonard.	John W. Thompson.
Miss Eva Mills.	Rev. H. R. Naylor.	Wash. B. Williams.
E. Morrison.	Rev. W. C. A. Leubkert.	H. O. Holtzman.
Wm. Tindall.	Hon. Simon Wolf.	

Executive Committee.

Hon. Arthur MacArthur, C'man.	Prof. E. M. Gallaudet.	W. W. Godding, M.D.
Elias S. Hutchinson.	Mrs. Sara A. Spencer.	

I.

Opening Session.

INTRODUCTORY ADDRESSES.

ADDRESS OF REV. W. G. ELIOT, D.D.,

CHAIRMAN OF THE LOCAL COMMITTEE.

As Chairman of the committee of local arrangements for the National Conference of Charities and Corrections, and as a citizen of St. Louis for fifty years past, and I may say, in a certain sense, as representative of the educational interest of St. Louis, with which I have been closely connected since the first public school was established here, it is my great privilege to welcome this Conference to our city. I feel a great pride personally, and speaking for you as individual citizens, that this Convention is to be held in St. Louis for the first time that it has met west of the Mississippi River. This Convention stands in the advanced ranks of Christian civilization, and it is an honor to work with it. We stand as co-workers with the best and noblest of our time. Nay, we stand in our feeble and humble way with Him who came to seek and to save that which was lost. Most earnestly, therefore, should we feel the honor conferred upon us; and every one of us should be prepared to do the best that we can to further the interests of this Convention. But it is not for me chiefly to extend this welcome. It is not a matter of individual interest only. It is a National Conference, in which our State is properly and duly represented; and I am very glad that his Excellency the Governor of this State, Thomas T. Crittenden, is here present, and I am sure he will kindly answer for the State in welcoming the Convention here.

ADDRESS OF HON. T. T. CRITTENDEN,

GOVERNOR OF MISSOURI.

Mr. President and Members of this Conference,—I much appreciate the courtesy of being invited to welcome the Eleventh Annual Conference of Charities and Correction to the great metropolis of Mis-

souri, and in behalf of our people also to extend that welcome to this happy and prosperous State. Whatever has in view the relief of mankind from oppression of any kind, whatever has in view the amelioration of the pains and sorrows of life, whatever is inaugurated by the good and learned in society to redeem and elevate mankind, will and does find a ready response in the heart and purse of every Missourian. Therefore, in the name and in behalf of a populous Christian State, I welcome this body of Christian men and women to Missouri; and, in the language of another, I say, "Blessed is he that considereth the poor." In this day of utilitarianism, everything must be of service to society, in order to command the respect of society. A State may possess all the natural elements of greatness, of wealth and prosperity, climate as genial as that of Italy, prosperity as great as that of the foremost nation on earth, and wealth as great as that of Rome when in her imperial power, yet that State is not great in the humanitarian sense of the word, without having the most enlightened plans for "staying pauperism," for checking intemperance, for restraining crimes, for reforming criminals; for giving ears to the deaf, so that they may hear the most tender vibrations of music; for giving eyes to the blind, so that they may go forth under the blue vaults of heaven, saying: "How grand are thy works, O God. Day unto day uttereth speech, night unto night showeth knowledge"; and at last giving speech, words, and language to the dumb, so that he and his kind, together with the other unfortunate ones, may all exclaim, art, intelligence, progress, and mercy have made our lives comparatively bright and happy and made us feel and know that the humanity of the heart is greater than the greed for gain and desire for selfish legislation. Although Missouri has not erected all the necessary buildings for charitable purposes that should be standing as an honor to its name, yet that spirit is in the hearts of our people; and within a few more years, for every eleemosynary institution that is founded in the great advanced States of New York, Massachusetts, and Wisconsin, there will be found a corresponding one in this State, a living monument to its liberality and intelligence. We have had difficulties to surmount that possibly these other States may not have had; but under the appeal of the unfortunate ones for life, for liberty, for light, for reason, and under the heavy blows that truth and right always give, those oppositions are giving way. And I predict that within a few more years — long before, I hope, your worthy President shall be called to his happy reward — a demand shall be heard from the

leaders of reform for the views of representative men of Missouri upon this or that point under discussion.

This Conference is an important one, presenting to our minds for consideration that greatest of all questions, What shall be done with our discharged criminals? with its cognate questions, What shall be done with the youthful who are inclined to pursue crooked paths, and how shall we remove the stain from the one and that inclination from the other? This subject becomes the more important, when we reflect that we not only have our own evil-disposed ones to look after, but also the myriads of those who are constantly coming to our shores from foreign lands, either voluntarily or by forced transportation. This Conference, together with other national boards, must solve this problem upon some elevated plan, else the evil will become more and more alarming to all right-thinking people. Some may say the large bodies of criminals annually thrown upon society can easily be swallowed up by the larger element of the good of society and assimilated into the body politic without detriment to the State or the government. I believe that all poisons admitted into the physical system of men or into the political autonomy of the State will sooner or later accomplish demoralizing effects. Whether we shall continue the system of definite penal sentences, then discharge the convict with hatred of the law and the State in his heart, a roaring lion against society, or resort to the system of indeterminate sentences with police supervision for one or more years, is the chief question for your thought and deliberation. I know of no more important one in all the fields of thought, as upon it rest the peace of society and the stability of government. It is of as much importance to cure the criminal as it is to prevent the crime. As the latter has not been heretofore accomplished, the former must now be done, else we are not faithful watchmen on the towers of society. If nothing can be done to save the criminals already hardened into ways of crime and crookedness (and that I do not hold), then in the name of Christianity, in the name of society, in the name of the State, in the name of the government, let us save the evil-disposed children of the land. I think it was Lord Bacon who said, "Give me the child, and the State may have the man." Goethe said, "It is the early training that makes the master." If the past and present generations of criminals cannot be reformed and again returned to society purified vessels, then we certainly can save the children of this day from the ways that are dark and the paths that

lead to death. More school-houses and churches can accomplish the work. It is wise and more economical to erect such in time than to await the day when the necessities of society demand jails and prison cells. The children of the land must be more vigilantly guarded and certainly educated. As has been said by another, who understands the weakness as well as the strength of human nature, crime cannot be hindered by punishment. Crime can only be truly hindered by letting no man grow up a criminal; by taking away the will to commit sin, not by mere punishment of its commission. Crime, small and great, can only be truly stayed by education,—not the education of the intellect only, which is in some men wasted, and for others mischievous, but the education of the heart, which is alike good and necessary for all. We want that sort of education in earliest childhood years which has in it the element of real character building. Here, gentlemen of this Conference, is the philosopher's stone of this question, the solution of this world-disturbing problem. More moral mothers, more sober and industrious fathers; more school-houses, from the kindergarten to the university; more schools of physical as well as mental training,—and then fewer jails and fewer penitentiaries will greet the eye of the citizen. When we shall reach that happy period, then all can say, "Sound all the church-bells into one chime, sound all the organs in one diapason, and gather all Christendom into one '*Te Deum laudamus*.'"

I again extend to one and all a generous welcome to the city of St. Louis and the State of Missouri.

ADDRESS OF HON. W. L. EWING,

MAYOR OF ST. LOUIS.

Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen,—It affords me pleasure to be present with you this evening and show thereby my appreciation of the humanitarian efforts which have been made by your association in such systematic manner for the past ten years, not only for the prevention of the propagation of crime in our land, but also of the attention paid by you to the sanitary and moral conditions of the unfortunate. The influence of your labors has been salutary to the inmates of the penal and eleemosynary institutions of the country. The important topics which will be themes for your discussions and consideration during this your Eleventh Annual Conference will bear no unimportant part in your labors for the future. So long as vice and crime exist in our land will there be

need for your service, practical and philanthropic, as well as for the various institutions which are included in the plans of your organization. The questions to be solved are: How can they best be conducted? What moral or religious safeguards can be thrown around them? and How best can reformation be effected in the classes whose crimes or misfortunes have brought them to confinement? This subject has a peculiar and effective interest to all who may be brought, officially or personally, in contact with the erring, whether novitiates in crime or hardened by long association therewith. I have long felt the necessity of organized, systematic effort in the dispensation of public charity, more especially in large cities; and any well-developed plans for the proper care of the worthy poor must commend themselves to the attention of the philanthropist. The education of the young mind has a powerful influence, either for weal or woe, upon coming generations; and I have felt a deep interest in the subject of the confinement and treatment of youthful offenders, more especially of that unfortunate class who are known as "abandoned by their natural protectors" and "improperly exposed to evil influences." I will not dwell further upon these questions of vital importance, as these, and others of like character, will demand and receive your thoughtful consideration during your sessions. They are numerous and well-defined. I am honored with the duty of bidding you a cordial welcome to our city. The high personal character of the members of this Conference, gathered together as you are from all sections of our common country, and of the committees having matters in charge, is a sufficient guarantee of the heartfelt labors you give so cheerfully without money and without price. You will find bountiful hospitality and receive generous greetings from our people, and every effort will be made to render the object of your association in this coming together in St. Louis a gratifying success.

ADDRESS OF PHILIP C. GARRETT, ESQ.

Governor Crittenden and Mr. Mayor,—Allow me, on behalf of the Conference of Charities and Correction, to express our sincere gratitude to you for the cordial way in which you have seen fit to welcome it to your city. It is true there was a certain measure of recognition of the value of the invitation to this city when it was accepted a year ago, at Louisville; but, if others feel as I do, even after a few hours spent in your midst, they will be satisfied that it is a

great advantage for the citizens of the whole country to see this magnificent city, of whose growth I had had no idea.

Before coming to St. Louis, I took the precaution to look in an encyclopædia to see what I could learn about the city that I did not know before; and I now take the liberty of reading to you what I found:—

“ST. LOUIS, the chief town of Missouri. The town contains several houses of public worship, among which is a Catholic cathedral and a theatre. The houses are mostly of wood, but many are built of stone and whitewashed. Most of them are furnished with a large garden. Population, 5,582. It is at present in a state of rapid improvement, fast increasing in population and trade. The situation is advantageous and interesting, being more central with regard to the whole territory belonging to the United States than any other considerable town; and uniting the advantages of the three great rivers, the Mississippi, Missouri, and Illinois, with their numerous branches, and, possessing unrivalled facilities for an extensive trade, it will probably become a large city, and be the centre of an extensive commerce.”

I was a little startled, and looked at the date, and found it was 1852. The population was given on the basis of the census of 1830. The results of the census of 1840 had not reached the encyclopedist.

St. Louis and I are of about the same age; but, after the lapse of fifty years from our birth, I find upon coming here about 375,000 of you, while there is only one of me. She is still the most considerable town west of the Mississippi River. She is in the centre of the unrivalled valley reaching from the Rocky Mountains on the west to the Appalachians on the east, which is destined to contain the bulk of our population. She is still the gateway of commerce for all the territory west of her. The Father of Waters bears on his bosom past her wharves, and to and from them, the enormous commerce of thousands of miles of shores, greater in extent than the track of the ocean steamers across the Atlantic.

But there are other conditions which make St. Louis an especially interesting place for us to meet in. She is the representative, not only of the great West on the one hand, but also of the South, with its vast but as yet somewhat undeveloped resources. This South, which is now in a state of development into a new civilization in consequence of the events of latter years, is in a peculiar position for reaping the benefits of this Conference.

There is still another consideration which makes it very interesting, and that is, the great possibilities of the future of this city.

I notice that there are fifty cities in the world which have a population of upwards of three hundred thousand, many of them over a million. But, when we consider that the United States up to the present time has a population which is only on the basis of fourteen to the square mile, and that some of the nations of Europe — as Belgium, for example — have five hundred to the square mile, — and yet in Belgium you see no evidence of overcrowding, — we realize what an increase there is sure to be. At the ratio of population of these European countries, we would have here two thousand millions, or about that of the whole globe to-day. Perhaps that is rather too enormous an estimate; yet, when we consider the possibilities of the vast extent of territory which constitutes our country, it seems of the utmost importance that the questions coming before this Conference should be confronted with feelings of serious responsibility, and that St. Louis, the gateway of the gigantic territories of the West, and in a sense the preceptress of the great undeveloped South, should join hands with us in this work. We should see that, whatever this rapidly increasing population may be in extent in the future, it shall be as nearly as possible perfect in its humanity. We do not want to see it made up of the defective classes. We want to raise the fallen, heal the sick, restore the insane. We want to reclaim the vicious. We want the bed of the unfortunate to be a bed of roses, not of thorns. And, in view of all this, it seems of great moment that the city that is, as it were, the centre of the United States, should join with us in this beneficent mission. And, in accepting your welcome, we welcome you as co-workers with us in the future, more than heretofore, in this glorious cause.

ADDRESS OF REV. FRED H. WINES.

Mr. Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen, — It gives me great pleasure to stand here to-night, and to add on behalf of this national assembly my word of thanksgiving and congratulation for the kind reception which we have met at the hands of the people of Missouri and of the city of St. Louis.

Some of us are not strangers to St. Louis. We have known it for many years, before the war and during the war and since the war; and we know that St. Louis is one of the wonders of the world. As we have come here at this time, we have been newly and deeply impressed with its solidity, with the rapidity of its growth, with the greatness of the future which is before it, and with the intelligence,

the liberality, and the enterprise of its citizens. We have come here, not in the spirit of teachers, not as missionaries, for the purpose of bringing with us a spirit of benevolence and philanthropy, which we desire to leave behind us, but for the purpose of having our own nobler feelings stimulated by contact with the noble hearts of the noble men and women of this city; that we may learn from you what best you have to show us, and that we may carry it away and profit by it in our after experience in life.

This great river, the Mississippi, which flows by your city, which has no equal perhaps in the known world, is the type, it appears to me, of this Conference. As it receives from the east and from the west, and from all parts of the country, the waters of the rivers which empty into it, so, we trust, this Conference will gather into itself those streams of benevolent and philanthropic impulse which flow in every State and territory of the nation, and will bear them on with an irresistible current into the great and mighty sea of the future. And we trust that, as this stream flows through our land, our beloved land, it may everywhere leave behind it traces of its vivifying power, and that it may make green and glad the country through which it flows.

I had hoped to say a word with regard to our beloved President, but I am warned by one of his intimate friends that I must not do so. I will, however, say this: that he comes here as a representative of the great State of New York and of the Board of Charities in that State of which he is President,—a board which has done for that State more than any, even of its own citizens, except those who have watched its beneficent influence, can appreciate or understand. To him, at least, belongs this proud distinction,—that he has by his personal efforts emptied the poorhouses of New York of her pauper children.

We have with us other men and other women whose acquaintance we hope you may make. If you are proud of your city and of your State,—and not without reason,—so are we proud of this Conference. We are proud of the friendships which we have here formed, of the influence which we believe has gone forth from it. We are proud of the fruits which have followed wherever we have met, and we trust that there may be formed here between us and you, even in the short time that we remain, attachments which will extend not only through life, but beyond the grave.

PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS.

BY HON. WILLIAM P. LETCHWORTH.

Ladies and Gentlemen, Members of the National Conference of Charities and Correction.—At the opening of the Conference, I venture to submit a few thoughts bearing upon its immediate and prospective work.

From valuable tables kindly furnished me by Mr. Wines, of the Census Bureau, I find that, according to the last census, there were in the United States:—

Criminals in prisons, penitentiaries, workhouses, houses of correction, jails, and in convict camps, or at work on plantations under the lessee system,	58,609
Juvenile delinquents in reformatory institutions,	11,468
Insane in insane hospitals and asylums, almshouses, and in private care,	91,959
Idiots in almshouses, hospitals, asylums, training-schools, and in private care,	76,895
Other defective classes, including the deaf and dumb, and the blind, either in institutions, at home, or in private care,	82,806
Paupers in almshouses,	66,203
"Indigent" persons in institutions, including those for children,	54,816
Aggregating,	442,756

From the total number as here stated should be deducted about 22,000 who are suffering from more than one form of misfortune, and are, therefore, Mr. Wines says, counted twice upon his list. The actual number of individuals represented, exclusive of out-door paupers, is not less than 420,000, or about one in every 120 of the population. Of this vast number, 105,586, are children under sixteen years of age, and 38,857 are young persons between sixteen and twenty-one years. The entire number in *institutions* of all kinds is slightly in excess of 240,000.

The proper and economic oversight of these classes, and the well-being of society as affected by them, are the momentous subjects under the consideration of this Conference. When we reflect that this large number does not include habitual offenders at large and the dependent not under institutional care in a country containing

a population of fifty millions, the magnitude of the subject forces itself upon us.

There was a time within my recollection when charity organizers and visitors were looked upon somewhat askance by practical people. Legislative committees regarded their schemes as Utopian, tending only to deplete the public treasury by multiplying costly structures for the luxurious care of paupers and criminals. But the disinterestedness of these workers, and the value of their labors, are now much better understood. It has been found that they are constantly revealing sources of evil and bringing to public notice important facts. By collecting statistics, by comparing methods and results, by building up systems of law on true principles of social science, they have finally come to be looked upon as promoters of the useful rather than the sentimental, and as having demonstrated that the heart may co-operate with the brain in the attainment of economic as well as humane results, and in the promotion of the highest public good.

In this country, State organization for charitable and correctional supervision is of comparatively recent date. Massachusetts established a board, now designated the Board of Health, Lunacy, and Charity, in 1863. New York followed her example in the creation of a State Board of Charities in 1867. Since then, similar boards have been founded by other States; and there are now eleven such boards. These have clearly proved their usefulness, especially those longest in operation. I will briefly refer to some of the changes effected in my own State, to illustrate the work and aims of other boards.

The organic act of the New York State Board authorized the visitation and inspection of the various charitable institutions, and required a yearly report to the legislature. By subsequent acts of the legislature, the powers of the board were enlarged, and its labors consequently much increased, as was but natural in a State having a population of over five millions and expenditures for charitable purposes exceeding ten millions of dollars annually. During its existence, the board has endeavored, by its committees and officers, each year, to visit all the charitable institutions of the State, and has made a large number of special inquiries, which from time to time were reported to the legislature. The facts obtained by these special inquiries and annual visitations have been a guide to legislation relative to the administration of public charity, and the work has brought about the following results:—

1. General improvement in the poorhouses and almshouses throughout the State, with stricter accountability of expenditure and greater economy in administration.

2. The perfecting and establishing of a uniform and complete system for recording the condition, habits, and antecedents of paupers in poorhouses and almshouses, thus enabling a more critical study of the causes of pauperism and a more intelligent application of agencies to reduce it.

3. A marked improvement in the treatment and care of the insane and idiotic in county poorhouses, and a closer observance of the statutes respecting their removal to State institutions.

4. Breaking up the system of rearing dependent children with adult paupers in poorhouses, and providing for their maintenance and care in families, children's homes, and other appropriate institutions.

5. More intelligent comprehension of the purposes and capabilities of the orphan asylums, hospitals, and similar charities, thus extending their benefits to a larger number of individuals.

6. Statutory enactments respecting the settlement of paupers, whereby certain poor, previously neglected by local authorities, may be removed to their friends or places of legal settlement in other States or countries, the enforcement of which has resulted in great public saving as well as benefit to the suffering.

7. More intelligent and careful examination of persons soliciting public aid, resulting generally in wiser and more critical discrimination in the administration of out-door relief.

The work already accomplished by State Boards warrants the establishment in every State of a central Board of Charity and Correction. Such a board should be a repository of the accumulated knowledge and experience of its own as also of other States and countries,—a source of information available at all times to the public in conducting its charitable and correctional work.

It also appears to me highly desirable that our State Boards should agree upon a uniform system of inquiry and statistical tables, so that the valuable information periodically collected by them may be comparable, each State with every other, and also, as far as possible, with the tables of other countries. In this way, the information obtained and collated by these boards with so much trouble and care may be of incalculable value, particularly in respect to the financial accounting of public institutions, of which the Illinois Board has developed and put in use an admirable plan. Its opera-

tion has manifestly greatly lessened charitable expenditure in that State, without, as it appears, in any way impairing the efficiency or usefulness of its public institutions. There is a growing disposition in the public mind to hold officials to a strict accountability of their trusts and to a careful, judicious, and economical expenditure of the public funds. And this is quite proper. The people have a right to demand and insist upon full and detailed information respecting expenditures by their agents,—the same right that individuals have to demand information respecting the acts of agents intrusted with their private business.

These boards should be so organized as not to relieve local boards of trustees of the full responsibility for the proper management of their trusts. In the discharge of its functions, a State Board should aim to strengthen confidence in well-conducted institutions. Its organization should be such as to make its judgments impartial and its criticisms intelligent and fair, and thus, while correcting abuses when found to exist, through its hold on the public confidence, be able to protect deserving institutions from sensational attacks and shield them from unreasonable prejudice.

The efficiency of such boards does not depend so much on the extent of power conferred by legislation as upon their moral power wisely and carefully exercised. They should educate rather than discipline, and not attempt the enforcement of legal measures without previous enlightenment of the public mind. Many a desirable reform fails, to the great disappointment and discomfiture of its advocates, because of the attempt arbitrarily to enforce a stringent law before the public mind is prepared for its acceptance.

In aiming to perfect our system of public relief, we should do all we can to build up and strengthen private charities in their needful work. By so doing, we not only enlarge the field of benevolence, but lessen the public burden. There are many charitable institutions, chiefly of the class having the care of children and the sick, that are now carrying on a large work without any assistance from the public, with means accumulated through wise management and by donations and bequests.

Aside from State Boards, another form of charity organization is that of Charity Organization Societies in cities, examples of which are found in Buffalo, Philadelphia, Boston, Cincinnati, Detroit, Indianapolis, New Haven, New York, Terre Haute, Syracuse, Taunton, Brooklyn, Lowell, Baltimore, Newport, and New Orleans. In view of the important results already achieved by these large

and influential societies, composed of disinterested, intelligent, and earnest workers, it is gratifying to see this form of charity organization rapidly extending.

In the history of all nations and of all times, we have seen seasons of active enterprise and great prosperity followed by periods of depression, want, and disturbance. This fact should not be lost sight of, nor the lessons of the past ignored. The long-continued and general prosperity of this country, during which values have appreciated, manufactures been stimulated, the volume of currency enlarged, bold enterprises undertaken, the demand for labor increased, and immigration augmented, may possibly ere long be succeeded by financial depression, paralyzed industries, a surplus of labor, and by want and suffering. Should this occur, we cannot rest supinely under these unhappy conditions; but the duties of true citizenship must be discharged, and disorganization counteracted by organization. However commonplace, laborious, and patience-trying the work may be, lethargy and want must be tided over to healthful activity. Therefore, it would seem the part of wisdom to extend charity organization throughout the country, particularly to populous centres: so that, while constantly striving to prevent and reduce pauperism and crime, we may at all times be ready to meet extraordinary social contingencies.

I shall not attempt to recapitulate the numerous reforms that have been wrought in charity work during the last quarter of a century, but I cannot forbear alluding to the great improvement that has taken place in the care of the insane. It is within the memory of most of us that the insane were treated with the same severity as criminals. It was thought by many that they were in a great measure responsible for their acts, and so punishable for their misdeeds; that their condition was self-imposed, and therefore out of the range of sympathy. They were confined in strong rooms or, as was sometimes the case, in stone dungeons, not infrequently manacled, chained to walls and floors, and otherwise treated with the extremest rigor. Great, however, as has been the change affecting this most unfortunate class of our fellow-beings, I think we are now entering upon an era of still broader beneficence, and that the improvement soon to come will embrace the highest aims of philanthropy and the soundest principles of science,—a time when our laws respecting committal and discharge will be so perfected that violations of personal liberty will not occur; when the persons and property of the mentally diseased shall be fully protected;

when the doors of an insane asylum shall open outward as freely as inward; when there will be no more reluctance to place those suffering from mental ailments in a hospital for the insane than in any other; when popular views respecting these institutions will not stand in the way of early treatment and consequently more hopeful cure; when the gloomy walls, the iron gratings, and prison-like appearance now characteristic of many of these institutions will disappear, and simpler, home-like structures, with a more natural life and greater freedom for the patient, with healthful outdoor employment and recreation diversified with indoor occupation and simple entertainment, will take their place; when the truth that "the laborer is worthy of his hire" shall be recognized, and patients performing labor shall feel that they have some recompense, however trifling, for their services; when in every hospital there shall be trained nurses and women physicians for female patients; when the moral element shall be co-equal with the medical element in treatment; when gentleness shall take the place of force, and the principle set forth by the founders of the Pennsylvania Hospital, that the insane "should be regarded as men and brethren," shall become universal; and, finally, a still more blessed time, when there shall prevail throughout society an intelligent idea as to the causes which produce insanity, and prevention shall largely obviate the necessity of cure. In a recent personal examination of a large number of European hospitals for the insane, I reached the conclusion that there were many features in transatlantic systems superior to ours; and I am glad to see that we are rapidly adopting them. At the same time, the way is open for European alienists to learn something from us.

In the management of public institutions having the care and custody of women and children, including the insane, the blind, deaf and dumb, and idiotic, my experience long ago convinced me that the State was impolitic in not permitting women to be represented on the Board of Control, thereby availing itself of her superior judgment in household affairs and of the intuitive knowledge of the wants of her own sex. I think this omission often entails a direct pecuniary loss and a less satisfactory administration than otherwise. In some unhappy instances, I have found that delicacy on the part of female subordinates has stood in the way of their communicating to the Managing Board important information necessary to the protection of the inmates. To deprive women inmates suffering either from bodily or mental disease from that protection insured them

by representation of their sex, is an unjust assumption of power, resulting in much unhappiness and not infrequent scandal. To deny children the consolation and advice belonging to a mother's experience and the interest springing from motherly instinct, seems unnatural and wrong. I know that many of our wise men will take issue with me on this subject, and I am aware that such a doctrine is unpopular. Nevertheless, my experience in charity supervision has been such that I feel it my duty to give utterance to this conviction.

In the enlargement of woman's sphere in charity work, it has been found that the introduction of trained nurses into hospitals has been attended with most satisfactory results; and the training of young women to take charge of children in orphan asylums, children's homes, and similar institutions, as is now done by Roman Catholic, Episcopalian, and Lutheran Sisterhoods, has proved of great advantage, especially as this training inculcates self-control on the part of the teacher, and the system comprehends thorough industrial instruction and familiarity with every element of moral elevation as well as religious teaching.

I think it safe to say that the attention of charity workers generally is now wisely turning to preventive measures as the surest means of lessening existing evils. We have heretofore begun our work where we find it full of discouragement. We begin with the hardened criminal and chronic pauper instead of the susceptible child; and yet, from neglected childhood, frequent and pitiable as we behold it, spring the most inveterate evils with which society must grapple. While the mind is plastic and character may be shaped so as to develop the elements necessary to good citizenship, through neglect, deformity and degradation ensue; and at length we find ourselves obliged to attempt the difficult cure of that which could easily have been prevented.

Extended examination has developed the fact that a large proportion of insanity, pauperism, and crime is induced by intemperance and dissipated habits, by ignorance and disregard of well-known sanitary laws, and by unrestrained indulgence in degrading vices. Therefore, whatever means are adopted to enlighten the ignorant, to elevate and strengthen character,—whether by the establishment of free libraries and healthful places of entertainment and resort for such as would otherwise seek haunts of demoralization, the general diffusion of knowledge on questions affecting the laws of life, the promotion of temperance, especially with the young, or other of the many efficient agencies now directed by earnest people for the im-

provement of society,— must necessarily lessen insanity, pauperism, and crime.

The great extent of unoccupied lands at the West, the carrying interest of railroad and steamship companies, the desire of landed corporations to effect sales, and the ambition of every community to increase its numbers, added to the general prosperity of the country, have all combined to stimulate an enormous volume of immigration. While this has resulted in rapid development of the country, it has at the same time proved an advantage not without a drawback. The unrestricted facilities afforded for transferring irksome burdens have caused the shipment from various localities in Europe of large numbers of helpless and utterly broken-down paupers, as also many incorrigible criminals, to our shores. While the honest and poverty-stricken immigrant should be welcomed, and every facility offered him for permanent settlement, the refuse element of the Old World should be vigorously repelled. Paupers sent here in a state of helplessness should be returned to the localities from whence they came and to the authorities responsible for their maintenance.

It is believed, if each community were compelled to bear its own proper burdens, it would the sooner examine into and remedy the causes which make the burdens. Pauperism is, unquestionably, one of the results of misgovernment. If the ruling policy of a country is such that

"Wealth accumulates and men decay,"

it must be conceded that it is no more than just to hold that country responsible for the evil it creates. In the experience of our own State Board, pauper shipments from abroad are multiplying, and have recently been the cause of some emphatic protests, in which the ground has been taken that "no country would allow us to cast upon it our distressed and helpless population without immediate resistance and diplomatic, if not stronger, protests; and our right to reject and protest against shipments of this class to us should be asserted, maintained, and enforced as a vital measure of protection by State as well as Congressional authority."

We at the East who have made official examination into pauper stock know with what tenacity it takes root, multiplies, and perpetuates itself. It has been found, by tracing the descent of a single hereditary pauper through degenerated families, that the amount expended by the public in supporting a single line has aggregated

as high as fifty thousand dollars. This unpromising tide now flows in upon us, not only through our seaports, but largely from our Canadian frontier, and can only be effectually resisted by further Congressional action. It has seemed to me a subject of national importance, worthy of careful examination; and I therefore direct attention to it.

The result of this abuse of a national privilege in times past is now traced in some of the defective offspring of foreign stock in our poorhouses. The abnormally large number of idiotic and weak-minded young women who have not sufficient intellect to protect themselves from the baser of the opposite sex is largely attributable to unrestricted pauper immigration. As an efficient remedy against the increase of burdens from this source, the State of New York, in 1878, established at Newark a custodial institution for this class. Here, employed to the extent of their capacity in various industries, are now collected about one hundred and fifty such young women. Aside from the humane aspects of this provision, the economy of this policy has been fully demonstrated, the cost of their maintenance and care being only about the same as that in poorhouses; and the reproduction of their kind is effectually estopped.

To comprehend justly what hereditary pauperism is, one needs to be a little time on a Charity Board. There, he soon learns that an adult, able-bodied, chronic pauper is one of the most limpsy, hopelessly inert, and utterly good-for-nothing objects in the world; and the community that is not continuously active in extirpating this fungous growth will soon find itself in the condition of the gardener, who, after planting the fruitful seeds, leaves his garden to the weeds.

In our work for homeless children and juvenile offenders, it appears to me that our present system is greatly at fault in not observing a stricter classification in the commitment of different classes of children to institutions, and in not maintaining a proper classification by transfer afterwards, as their characters are better understood.

Again, such industrial training of youth held in durance as will make them self-reliant and independent on going out into the world is of so much importance that I trust the subject will be fully discussed. I do not see why systematic instruction in mechanic arts under the Russian or a similar plan may not be introduced into all our reform schools for boys, and instruction in cooking, laundry, house and needle work, be a feature of the training in like schools for girls, and the kindergarten and kitchen-garden be generally

adopted for younger children in institutions of the character of orphan asylums, day industrial schools, etc.

While it is of great importance that the system of education and training under institutional care should be as perfect as practicable, it is still more important to reform the delinquent youth without the institution rather than within it. We should try to lessen the number of inmates in institutions of all kinds rather than increase them, especially in institutions for children. The institution is something to be used only as a last resort. The Massachusetts plan of dealing with juvenile offenders appears to me worthy of general adoption. In Massachusetts, in every hopeful case, sentence is suspended; and the State Agent, under permission of the court, is allowed to hold the child under surveillance in care of the parent or guardian, or he may board the child out for a time where it is disassociated from former evil companions. Meanwhile, the agent influences the boy and his parents or guardian for his reformation, and reports to the court. If the delinquent improves, the sentence is still further suspended; and finally, in a great majority of cases, he is saved without having the misfortune of a criminal record made against him, and without the stigma of having been committed to an institution for incorrigibles. The expense in the first instance is trifling as against hundreds of dollars in the latter. If it becomes necessary, however, to commit the offender to an institution, the agent is consulted as to what institution he shall be sent; but the paternal care of the State does not cease here. It follows the delinquent to the institution, where, if it be found that his interest or that of the institution will be promoted by a change, he is transferred elsewhere, upon recommendation of the State Agent, by the Board of Health, Lunacy, and Charity. By this means, it is possible to place the youthful offender, even while in institutional care, under such treatment, mild or severe, as is best suited to his individual case.

Respecting this broad subject of charity, let me briefly say that our whole work, to be most effectual, must be permeated by that spirit of love which flows from a divine source. Charity without this is bitter fruit. The kindly spoken word pointing out the way to self-helpfulness is often more acceptable and valuable than costly gifts; and this, it is wisely ordered, the poorest can give to the poor. In times of great distress, how often does the distribution of public money awaken envyings, hatred, and discord rather than gratitude, because of the lack of any manifestation of personal sympathy! To do our work well, we must as individuals seek out our neighbor's

want, showing him by our warm and earnest interest in his welfare that we recognize a universal human brotherhood. By the recognition of this principle, true and noble natures in the different walks of life are brought nearer together, and come to know and respect each other. In this way, too, may be dispelled the sorrow and gloom found in the dark destiny of many human lives. Then, with hopefulness, let us patiently and conscientiously pursue our work, directing our efforts to practical results, all our aims converging in the public good. We may not expect personal reward, we may not find appreciation; but there will be compensation in the reflection that this humble yet sublime service is not for to-day nor for to-morrow, but that its moral and spiritual influence extends beyond our mortal vision, radiating in outward circling waves beyond the shores of time into the infinite vistas of eternity.

II.

REPORTS FROM STATES.

The Committee on Reports from States presented a written report, through its chairman, Mr. Wines, which at his request is here omitted, since it was merely a brief summary of the substance of the statements which follow.

ALABAMA.

Dr. BRYCE, Tuscaloosa.—There is very little of either change or progress to report in Alabama during the past year. A board appointed by the legislature to inspect the convict camps has done immense good.

ARKANSAS.

Rev. T. R. WELCH, D.D., Little Rock.—*Penitentiary.* There is but one penitentiary in Arkansas, at Little Rock. The institution is leased to contractors for a period of ten years, from May, 1883. The lessees pay the State three dollars and seventy-five cents per month for each convict, and bear all expenses except care and repair of building and grounds, and placing machinery in the building for the employment of convicts. Many of the prisoners are employed outside of the penitentiary in making brick and cultivating farm lands. Under the present lease, the death-rate has been small, most of the deaths being caused by shooting the convicts in their attempts to escape. The general health of the prisoners has been good, and they are kindly cared for by the lessees. The State Board of Commissioners is required by law to make frequent visits to the prison, and to alter or modify any regulations made by the lessees; also to see that the convicts are humanely treated, furnished with plenty of nourishing food, and comfortably clothed. A large majority of the convicts are without any education whatever. The number convicted of larceny is greater than of all other crimes: this is especially true of the colored prisoners. The number now in the penitentiary is 600; namely, 198 white, 400 colored, 2 Indians. There are 14 females, all colored. The State has a liberal "good-time" law. Religious services are held in the penitentiary every Sabbath. There

has been no material change for the better in the penal code. No doubt it could be improved.

Insane Asylum.—The Asylum for the Insane is located near Little Rock. The buildings are large and substantial, and were erected at a cost of about \$150,000. They are now full, with 250 inmates. The patients are as well cared for as in any similar institution in the country. The legislature appropriates \$58,000 per annum for the support of this institution.

School for the Blind.—The School for the Blind, incorporated Feb. 4, 1859, is, as the name implies, strictly an educational institution, with three departments of instruction, literary, musical, and industrial. The number of pupils enrolled Oct. 1, 1884, was forty-three. The annual appropriation is \$11,000. The school occupies eight acres of ground, beautifully located in the southern limits of Little Rock, within easy walking distance of the churches and Sabbath-schools, which the pupils attend regularly. A Bible-class is held in the institution, and non-sectarian religious instruction is given to the pupils daily.

Mute School.—The School for Deaf-Mutes occupies large and pleasant buildings, erected on a high hill to the west of the city of Little Rock. It opened Oct. 1, 1884, with fifty pupils: the number will perhaps reach seventy-five during the year. The annual appropriation is \$17,780. Articulation is taught by one of the teachers. Instruction is given in printing and shoemaking.

Private Charities.—There are in Little Rock three private charitable institutions, namely: the Ladies' Benevolent Association, which cares for the sick and the poor; the Old Ladies' Home; and the Children's Aid Society, which seeks to care for poor and neglected orphans by finding homes for them in respectable families. These societies are in a quiet way doing a great and good work in our city.

CALIFORNIA.

E. R. HIGHTON, Alameda.—The governor has appointed prison directors from both political parties, which is a gratifying step in the right direction. The Boys and Girls' Aid Society is prosecuting its beneficent work with great zeal and fair success. The Prison Reform Committee, of which I am the chairman, is earnestly working in order to prepare its report, through the California Prison Commission, to the next legislature, which assembles in December next; and it is hoped that it will be enabled then to present a complete and

efficient system for the penal and reformatory administration of the State, and also to propose a plan for creating a more aggressive method for checking the incipient criminality—"hoodlumism"—which is so alarmingly on the increase, by enlarging the operations of the Boys and Girls' Aid Society, and creating an efficient, practical censorship throughout the State. California is becoming increasingly awake to her social responsibilities, especially to the necessity for a thorough reform of penal and reformatory methods, on the principle of "love in law and law in love," but without removing those deterring restraints which experience has proved to be necessary to social order.

COLORADO.

No detailed report from Colorado was presented. There is a State Insane Asylum in Pueblo; an Industrial School at Golden; a Mute and Blind Institution at Colorado Springs.

DAKOTA.

The report for Dakota, prepared by Mr. ELIJAH COFFIN, was signed also by Messrs. Charles B. Austin, Charles M. Koehler, and Theodore D. Kanouse.

The territory of Dakota is one of the largest in the United States. Being 400 miles long and 380 miles wide, it covers an area of 150,000 square miles. The first settlement was made in 1856; but, until within the past ten years, little has been known concerning it by the general public.

Its population in 1880 was 135,000; and, at the close of 1883, it was estimated at 350,000. Of this number, at least 300,000 reside east of the Missouri River. On account of its immense size and the lack of railroad communication between the north and south, it has been necessary to duplicate its institutions for charities and corrections.

As yet there is no general board of charities; and there is, therefore, but little general supervision of its institutions.

The counties, as rapidly as their needs compel, erect fair, old-fashioned poorhouses. A large majority of the inmates of these asylums are not of the class of paupers that we find so plentiful in the poorhouses in the older States, but are there on account of illness or other unavoidable misfortunes. There are but few drones in our great bee-hive, and the people are very kind hearted and charitable.

Of course, in the midst of the great rush of population to this territory and the scramble after fortunes, some abuses occasionally occur in the management of these institutions. But these soon come to light, and are corrected.

We have two hospitals for the insane. One of these is at Yankton, and is a three-story brick building with basement, 300 feet by 50 feet, with two wings, each 40 feet wide. The building cost \$125,000, and is heated throughout by steam. It has, at present, 150 patients, of whom 90 are males and 60 females. The total cost for maintenance is \$28,000 per annum, being a trifle over \$185 per inmate. A large part of the work about the institution is done by the inmates, and the occupation has been found quite beneficial to them.

The other hospital is located at Jamestown in Northern Dakota, and is built on the cottage plan. It is beautifully located on the hills. The legislature, in 1883, made an appropriation of \$50,000 with which to start the buildings and purchase the grounds. A substantial stone and brick building to accommodate 50 patients has been erected, and 640 acres of land have been purchased. It is the intention of the trustees to make this a model institution, and the plans are very comprehensive and perfect. Our next legislature will, undoubtedly, make appropriations for additional buildings and for the maintenance of the institution.

The Dakota penitentiary is at Sioux Falls in the south-eastern portion of the territory, and was erected in 1882. The buildings are of Sioux Falls jasper stone, and consist of a main building, three stories high, 54 x 71. The wing, or cell-room, is 51 x 77, and contains 72 cells, each 5 feet wide by 8 feet long and 7 feet high. The cells are built in 4 tiers, and have a corridor around them. There are, at present, 91 inmates. The other buildings consist of a warden's residence, a boiler-house, a building for laundry, hospital, and female prison. The United States Territorial Penitentiary is connected with this prison. All the buildings, except the main building, have been built by the prisoners, there being no other occupation for them. The contract system has been adopted in this prison; and, from the 1st of December next, the prisoners will be employed in the manufacture of boots and shoes. The workshops are 40 x 80. There is a small library connected with the prison, and each man has his own Bible and hymn book. Chapel services are held every Sunday morning. Every effort is made for the reformation of the prisoners, and they do not wear striped clothing. Their dress consists of a jacket, vest, and trousers made of blue-gray jeans, with hickory shirts and

cotton-flannel underwear. The warden reports that, in the two years during which the institution has been in operation, there have been no attempts to escape.

The North Dakota penitentiary is at Bismarck; and the central building and one wing of cells, intended to accommodate 100 prisoners, has just been completed, at a cost of \$50,000. The building is of brick, and is to be heated by steam, and is of the old-fashioned kind, where it is simply impossible to take any effectual steps looking to the reformation of the prisoners. There are no prisoners in this penitentiary yet. Every effort was made to have some of the more modern plans adopted; but the act of the legislature which authorized the establishment of the penitentiary required that a prison should be built which would accommodate not less than 125 prisoners, and limited the sum to be expended to \$50,000.

The Dakota School for Deaf-Mutes is at Sioux Falls, and is built of jasper granite with brick trimmings. It has accommodations for 80 inmates, but has, at present, only 26. We have, as yet, no asylum for the blind.

With our rapidly increasing population and growing wealth and intelligence, we have great hopes for the future prosperity of our institutions for charity and correction.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

Mrs. SARA A. SPENCER, Washington.—Steady growth, mainly in the direction of a healthy public sentiment concerning the wise administration of charity, has marked the past year.

At the last session of Congress, the usual appropriations were made, not differing essentially from those recorded in the "chart of charities."

On the 15th of December, 1883, the Charity Organization Society of the District of Columbia was incorporated for twenty years. The objects named in its charter are identical with those of the New York Charity Organization Society. The file bureau, the street registry, the card system, and the general plan of work of that society were carefully examined by your secretary, at the request of the new Washington society; and, after comparison of the relative needs of New York and Washington, and counsel with experienced officers in different cities, the New York plan was adopted by the Washington society, with only such slight modifications as our different form of government and existing charitable organizations rendered necessary.

The central office of the Charity Organization Society is on the first floor of Lincoln Hall Building, 9th & D Streets, N.W. President, A. S. Pratt; general secretary, Robert B. Kinsell, who devotes his entire time to the work, and receives a salary of \$75 per month. Five thousand cases have been registered within seven months, including thirty-one hundred and nine from police head-quarters. Alms-giving is prohibited by the charter of the society, yet no case reported at the office is neglected. The prompt and cheerful cooperation of churches, benevolent societies and institutions, and of the District government have thus far met every need. The chief work of the office is that of a clearing house of information concerning charities.

The Associated Charities, at the last annual meeting, Nov. 6, 1883, re-elected all of its former officers. Its central office is now at 924 G Street, L. S. Emery, general secretary. It has opened a kitchen-garden, a class in cookery, a free kindergarten, an industrial school, a sewing class, and a wood-yard.

The subdivisions are also engaged in the administration of various forms of direct relief.

The following new institutions have been founded and opened during the present conference year:—

1. House of the Good Shepherd, 1017 9th Street. House and grounds given by Miss Anna Smith in her last will and testament. It is in charge of Catholic Sisters of the Good Shepherd.

2. House of Mercy, 2418 K Street, established by the Episcopal churches of Washington. In charge of the Episcopal "Sisters Talcott." For fallen women and for infants.

3. Homœopathic Hospital, 1106 F Street, N.W. Miss Lizzie Piper, matron; A. S. Pratt, president of Board of Trustees.

4. Garfield National Memorial Hospital, head of Tenth Street, N.W., above Boundary Street.

5. Metropolitan Industrial School, 19th and H Streets, N.W. Mrs. William A. Cook, president; Mrs. M. A. Weaver, secretary. For boys and girls.

6. Senthal Home for Widows, 19th and G Streets, N.W.

7. Woman's Exchange, 14th Street, between H and I Streets, N.W. Object, employment for women.

8. Woman's Dispensary, 925 10th Street, N.W. Dr. Jeannette J. Sumner, attending physician. Medical and surgical diseases of women and children treated gratuitously.

During the month of March, 1884, a sensational article in a daily

paper, describing heart-rending, blood-curdling scenes among the poor, alarmed the people of the city; and the commissioners called a public meeting to consider measures for the immediate relief of the poor. Ten thousand dollars were collected from citizens, and distributed to the poor by the police. The \$15,000 annually appropriated by Congress for this purpose had already been exhausted.

Thus, \$25,000 were used in out-door relief in the national capital within one year, mainly within three months, undoing with fearful havoc the work of reform which patient souls, with tender, far-seeing love, had been carrying forward. It would take a volume to describe the immediate and remote injury done by this spasm of charity.

Mr. L. S. EMERY, Washington.—We have in the District of Columbia asylums for the aged, hospitals for the sick, homes for the orphans, with an approximate capacity to meet the emergencies of all.

The following is a list of such institutions, with the number of inmates, as reported to the Associated Charities during the present month, and the estimated expense for the current fiscal year:—

INSTITUTIONS.	INMATES.	EXPENSES.
<i>Hospitals.</i>		
Providence,	150	\$15,000
Freedmen's,	230	50,000
Columbia,	45	15,000
Children's,	45	5,000
The Insane Asylum,	1,154	202,500
Garfield,	30	
Emergency,	Not reported	
National Homœopathic,	6	
<i>Homes.</i>		
Industrial Home,	79	\$10,000
Reform School (for boys),	140	32,950
Washington Asylum,	349	46,300
Women's Christian Home,	50	5,000
St. John's Church Orphanage,	53	1,500
National Home for Colored Women and Children,	106	27,000
St. Ann's Infant Orphan Asylum,	120	5,000
Home for the Aged,	150	1,800
Aged Women's Home,	13	
Epiphany Church Home,	16	
Washington City Orphan Asylum,	150	
Home for Aged Colored,	40	
German Orphan Home,	40	
Louise Home,	40	
St. Vincent Female Orphan Asylum,	130	
St. Joseph's Male Orphan Asylum,	110	
St. Rose Industrial School for Girls,	50	

The total number of inmates is 3,296, provided for partly by donations and partly by appropriations. To these, add the number in jail, 1,898, which makes the grand total (during the year), 5,194.

In addition to these, we have a night lodging-house, with a capacity for 40; the Associated Charities of the District supports a free school for instruction in housekeeping for girls between the ages of twelve and nineteen, two free kindergartens, a sewing-class, an industrial school for colored children, and a wood-yard.

A few years ago, our city was overrun with street and door-to-door beggars; but, since the Associated Charities has been fairly established, street begging has diminished, and now there is practically none of it, and the poor are very much better cared for. The Commissioners take a lively interest in the improvement, and the authorities co-operate.

Appended to Mr. Emery's report was a statement by Mr. George A. Wheeler, chairman of the sub-committee of the Young Men's Christian Association on Jail Work, showing that there were on the first Sunday of October, 1884, in jail, 188 prisoners, which is about the average number. Mr. Wheeler says:—

"For the government to discharge a prisoner, however mean and low, in mid-winter, without proper clothing, without food, without shelter, without employment, without friends, without money, without character of course, is to my mind simply barbarous, and is an invitation to crime which the victim will not be slow to accept. Scores of men have tramped through the mud and snow across those bleak 'commons' that lie between the jail and the city, in the condition above described,—cold, hungry, friendless, a charge upon the community. In some of the States, provision is made for discharged prisoners. A good ordinary suit of clothes is provided, \$5.00 in cash, and transportation to their home; but Congress has made no provision of this kind."

ILLINOIS.

Hon. WILLIAM A. GRIMSHAW, Pittsfield.—The State Board of Charities is charged with the supervision of the ten institutions of the State,—four hospitals for the insane, an institution for the blind, an institution for the deaf and dumb, an institution for the feeble-minded, the Soldiers' Orphan Home, the Eye and Ear Infirmary, and the Reform School for Boys. These have been regularly visited by the board, and are in admirable working order.

Additions and improvements have been made to all these institutions in the last year. At Jacksonville, in the Deaf and Dumb

Institution the Edison electric light has been introduced, and is very satisfactory.

On the grounds of the Eastern Hospital at Kankakee there are in progress of completion detached cottages for insane patients, which will accommodate about thirteen hundred, outside of the main edifice. These buildings are of stone with slate roofs, having many associate dormitories, and also dining and sitting rooms on the associate plan. These buildings are neat, well constructed, and economical.

At Jacksonville, on the premises of the Central Hospital for the Insane, buildings of less costly structure than the congregate system, somewhat on the cottage system, are erecting to accommodate three hundred patients, the cost per capita not to exceed three hundred dollars.

Illinois has adopted a system of accounts for her State institutions: it is found that it is working well. The expenditures of the institution are fully accounted for in the respective classes, and the State can practically control any institution in regard to the disbursement of funds.

Illinois has a law requiring a jury to try the question of sanity or insanity. Our board regards the law as highly prejudicial to the individual, and hopes to have an inquest by a medical board appointed by a legal tribunal substituted for the jury trial. Our secretary, Mr. Wines, has been preparing a report of the laws governing the investigation of insanity in other States, which may appear as a part of our next official report. This subject was discussed in the last report of our board to the legislature, and a paper submitted therewith on the legal aspect of the proper mode of investigating the question of sanity or insanity, prepared, by request of the board, by myself.

The board desires to have district jails established for juvenile offenders who are not by law subject to be sent to the reform school, to avoid sending such to the penitentiary.

There is another matter of importance,—not that we find serious abuse in Illinois in that regard, but the fact that we look upon it as wrong in principle,—that females should be imprisoned in the same building where males are confined. We intend to ask the legislature to establish distinct places of detention for females, with only female keepers.

I am pleased to state that one matter which we regarded at one time as highly experimental has proved very satisfactory; that is, the use of less restraint, and of the use of buildings for the insane resem-

bling private homes, and free from barred windows and locked doors. We hope to remove all the insane from our jails and poorhouses, the construction of the new buildings at Kankakee and Jacksonville being for that purpose, with the additional room at Anna in a building resembling a cottage.

The jails and poorhouses of the State are visited by the assistant secretary of the Board of Charities, to learn whether insane persons are there confined, and to report on their treatment. We have one hundred and three counties in Illinois. The jails and poorhouses therein have been visited this year. Considerable improvement has been found in them of late years, and yet there is ample room for much more improvement.

KANSAS.

No report was received from the State of Kansas.

MAINE.

Rev. J. K. MASON, D.D., Fryeburg.—Our institutions for charity and correction are the same as last year. No new ones established. No radical changes made. Some methods, in minor details, introduced, whose utility is yet to be proved. All have been administered with usual fidelity and success, though not wholly satisfactorily to those who have given such matters much thought. It is hoped and expected that a State Board of Charities and Correction will be recommended by the governor at the convening of the legislature in January, to be followed by suitable action. It would have been urged the past year but for the fact that our legislative sessions are biennial, and the past has been "the off year." If we can have such a board, with a wise superintendent, we shall expect to be able to show commendable improvement. At present, our institutions, as compared with those of other States, are commendably supervised and prosperous.

MASSACHUSETTS.

Mr. F. B. SANBORN, Boston.—The events of the year 1883, which attracted some attention to the State charities of Massachusetts, were not favorable to important legislation or material improvements in administration during that year. Consequently, the present year opened with an accumulation of legislative business relating to the charitable and penal establishments of the State; and the long session of 1883 resulted in more numerous and more considerable changes in those establishments than had been seen for several years.

The prison system was amended by the creation of a distinct reformatory prison for men, corresponding in some degree to the Reformatory Prison for Women already established. This Massachusetts Reformatory, as it is called, will be opened in the buildings of the Concord prison before the close of 1884, and will receive the younger convicts heretofore sent to the State prison or to houses of correction, provided their sentence is for more than one year and less than ten. The older and longer sentenced convicts will return to the old State prison at Charlestown, which is receiving important alterations for that purpose; and the two prisons, when in operation, will furnish a better opportunity of classifying and reforming convicts than has before existed in Massachusetts.

A corresponding change was made by the legislature in the State Reform School for Boys at Westborough, where the age of admission has been reduced to fifteen years; and the incorrigible boys are subjected to confinement in the new reformatory prison, which thus holds an intermediate place between the reform school (the name of which has been changed to the Lyman School for Boys, in honor of its founder, Theodore Lyman) and the State prison for hardened offenders and life-sentenced men. The State workhouse at Bridgewater, for the rebuilding of which the same legislature made provision, holds the same place in respect to men convicted of minor offences that the Lyman School does in respect to boys; although there is no provision for transferring the vagrants, tramps, etc., sentenced to the State workhouse, to either the Massachusetts Reformatory or the Charlestown State prison. The county prisons are unaffected by this new legislation, except that it diminishes the number of long sentenced convicts in the county houses of correction.

The establishments for the insane were also increased in number by the legislation of 1884, although these statutes have not yet taken practical effect. A new State hospital was created upon the grounds of the State Reform School in Westborough; and an appropriation of \$150,000 was voted to remodel and enlarge the buildings erected there for the use of boys, so that they may receive some 300 insane persons under homœopathic treatment. No portion of this appropriation has yet been expended except for the preparation of plans, and the alterations necessary in the buildings have not yet been commenced; but it is expected that some time in 1885 a portion, at least, of this new hospital will be occupied by patients, and that ultimately the large estate at Westborough will furnish an asylum for more than 500 insane persons under homœopathic treatment. This will be the

first homœopathic hospital for the insane in New England, and, if carried on according to the plan of its promoters, will soon be as large as any homœopathic asylum in the country. The measure encountered some opposition in the legislature, but was finally passed by a nearly unanimous vote.

The new hospital and each of the four existing hospitals at Danvers, Northampton, Taunton, and Worcester, which the State controls, were required by an act of the present year to have two women on their boards of trustees, and to appoint one woman as an assistant physician in each of the five hospitals. This act has taken effect; and, of the thirty-five trustees now managing these five hospitals, ten are women, while in two of the hospitals women are acting as assistant physicians. There had previously been a woman trustee and a woman physician in the Danvers hospital, so that the change there will be less marked than at Northampton, Taunton, and Worcester. It is anticipated that this legislation, while not materially changing the condition of things in the lunatic hospitals, will secure a more careful inspection in certain ways and a better individual treatment of the female patients. Certain legislation of 1883, by which patients might be released from the hospitals for sixty days previous to their final discharge, has taken general effect this year, and has proved satisfactory both to the hospitals and to the friends of the patients. The State hospitals and those maintained by cities or counties, and the endowed asylum at Somerville, are all crowded with patients; and a considerable number have consequently been removed during the past twelve months to city and town almshouses, or to asylum buildings under the same management as these almshouses. Yet the whole number of insane persons now residing in almshouses and almshouse asylums throughout Massachusetts does not exceed 650, unless we reckon the patients at the Tewksbury asylum connected with the State almshouse. This, however, is a well-managed chronic asylum, under medical control and daily medical supervision. The whole number of insane patients in the hospitals and asylums, public and private, throughout the State, now somewhat exceeds 3,700, so that scarcely more than one-seventh of the Massachusetts insane are under almshouse management. The Board of Health, Lunacy, and Charity, which possesses the full power of a Lunacy Commission for Massachusetts, has caused all these almshouses to be visited and reported on during the year 1884; and it appears that their general condition is good, although some striking exceptions have been found.

To regulate the management and extend the advantages of local almshouses for the insane, the last legislature passed a law authorizing cities of more than 50,000 inhabitants (of which there are five in Massachusetts, Boston, Worcester, Lowell, Cambridge, and Fall River) "to establish and maintain one or more asylums for the care and treatment of the chronic insane of such cities, and of any other city or town," all such asylums to be under the care of proper medical officers, having experience with the insane. These new asylums, none of which have yet been established under the law, are subject to frequent visitation by the State Board, which has authority to remove, transfer, and discharge patients therefrom. It is hoped that this statute will lead to the maintenance of well-managed and small chronic asylums.

Two of the larger establishments for paupers, the State almshouse at Tewksbury and the State workhouse at Bridgewater, which were formerly under separate boards, have this year been placed under the control of a single board, constituted like the hospital boards already mentioned, with seven members, two of whom must be women. There are, therefore, at the present time but seven boards of trustees for the twelve establishments, exclusive of prisons, namely: the five hospital boards, already mentioned; the new almshouse and workhouse board, which controls two establishments; and the school board, which controls the three schools,—the State Primary at Monson, the Lyman School at Westborough, and the State Industrial School for Girls at Lancaster. These seven boards, with nearly fifty members, include fourteen women; while the Board of Health, Lunacy, and Charity has one woman among its members, and avails itself of the service of nearly a hundred women as clerks, visitors, and auxiliary visitors.

Except the changes above indicated in the boards of management, no considerable alteration has been made in the existing State establishments. All the superintendents who were in service a year ago are still at the head of their respective hospitals, schools, etc. The expenses of administration in these establishments were a little greater than usual last year, by reason of the increased number of inmates; and the same remark holds good the present year. The average cost of support, however, is rather less than formerly, particularly in the hospitals and asylums for the insane, where the increased number has not been accompanied by a proportionate increase in weekly expenditure. A schedule of the appropriations made for these establishments is annexed to this report; but it should be remembered

that the State appropriations for the care of the insane, even in the State hospitals and asylums, is less than a fifth part of the whole cost of these establishments annually, the cities and towns paying nearly two-thirds of this yearly cost, and the income from private patients and from funds making up the remainder. The same remark applies, though in a less degree, to the State reformatories, the State workhouse, and the State Primary School, in each of which the municipalities or the income of funds, or both, pay a part of the yearly expense. The State almshouse, alone, is supported wholly by the appropriation from the State treasury, without much reimbursement from cities and towns.

These cities and towns of Massachusetts, now numbering 347 in the fourteen counties of the State, expend a much larger sum annually than the State treasury pays for the support and relief of the poor. During the year ending April 1, 1884, the net amount expended by the 347 municipalities equalled \$1,600,000, on a gross expenditure of \$1,750,000, of which sum \$504,000 was expended in support of the town poor in local almshouses, \$409,000 in support of insane poor in the public hospitals, \$102,000 for support in private families, \$629,000 for the temporary relief of the poor, and \$106,000 for the expenses of general administration. During the same period, the net expenditure of the State for similar purposes was about \$400,000, including the administrative expenses of this board and its departments in the care of the sane and insane poor. Adding this to the \$1,600,000 paid by the cities and towns after deducting all reimbursements, the aggregate cost of the sane and insane poor of Massachusetts for the past year has been about \$2,000,000 for a population now estimated to exceed 2,000,000. Of this outlay, not less than \$600,000 has been expended for the support and treatment of the insane poor; and probably, if the exact facts were known, a third part of this cost of pauperism is expended for the insane.

The general policy of our State in regard to its charitable and correctional institutions has undergone no change during the past year, although certain new features have appeared, as above indicated. These are rather a development of its ancient policy than any sudden or even gradual change therein. The public agitation of 1883 tested the strength and value of this policy, but did not weaken it, still less undermine or overturn it. An increased interest in these subjects has been manifested by the public, but has not yet led to new forms of voluntary association for charitable objects; although the existing forms have been continued with perhaps more zeal in

our cities, particularly in the direction of what are called "Associated Charities." The effort is making to diminish the amount paid for out-door relief in some cities where it is believed to be excessive, and in this effort the Associated Charities co-operate.

There are no county appropriations in Massachusetts for the support of the poor; but the county prisons are maintained from county appropriations, amounting each year to about \$225,000. The 347 cities and towns appropriate annually for charities and corrections nearly \$2,250,000. The State appropriations are given below, classified without reference to the sanity or insanity of the public dependants, but so as to show how much is appropriated for full support in families and how much for partial support, or out-door relief, strictly speaking. At the end of this statement will be found the appropriations for the support of the State prisons and reformatories except the State workhouse, which is here reckoned as a pauper establishment. The general administrative expenses of the State charities appear separately in the statement of appropriations.

SCHEDULE OF STATE APPROPRIATIONS IN 1884 FOR SUPPORT AND RELIEF OF THE POOR.

For full support in establishments,	\$345,500
Namely: for State poor in lunatic asylums,	130,000
State pupils at the Massachusetts School for the	
Feeble-minded,	17,500
State Almshouse at Tewksbury,	94,000
State Primary School at Monson,	51,400
State Workhouse at Bridgewater,	40,000
Foundling and neglected infants at the infant asylums,	3,000
Massachusetts Charitable Eye and Ear Infirmary, . .	10,000
For full support in families,	38,000
Namely: for foundlings,	27,000
Indigent and neglected children,	11,000
For partial support, or out-door relief,	53,600
Namely: for sick State poor in cities and towns,	30,000
Temporary support of State paupers by cities and	
towns,	16,000
Indian State paupers,	100
Burial of State paupers by cities and towns,	8,500
For general administrative expenses,	70,800
Namely: for the State Board of Health, Lunacy, and Charity (ex-	
cluding the Health Department),	53,200
Removals and transportation of State paupers, . . .	15,600
Management of cases of settlement and bastardy, . .	2,000
Aggregate appropriations,	509,300

Appropriations for State Prisons and Reformatories,	\$244,100
Namely: for State Prison for Men at Concord,	139,000
Reformatory Prison for Women at Sherborn,	62,800
Lyman School for Boys at Westboro,	35,000
State Industrial School for Girls at Lancaster,	16,300

MICHIGAN.

Mr. W. J. BAXTER, Lansing.—The work of the Board of Corrections and Charities in Michigan, though increased in volume, has not materially changed in character since the last Conference.

The State institutions subject to its inspection are the same; and each receives one, and generally several visits from the full board annually, and frequent visits by individual members, among whom the several State institutions are apportioned for observation and care. Great attention is given by the board to the jails and poorhouses. Every one of the seventy-six jails and the sixty poorhouses, and many city and village lock-ups, in the eighty counties of the State, have been visited at least once, and most of them several times, by one or more members of the board, or by the secretary, since January, 1883; and marked improvement in their condition is apparent. Our county jails, as is the case in most of the States, are used not only for the detention of the accused until trial, but also for criminals serving out short sentences. Many of them are small, badly constructed, very close, without ventilation except by grated doors and windows, overcrowded, with no facilities for or rules requiring washing, bathing, or cleanliness of person or clothing, too often dirty and infested with vermin, many with no facilities, and most with very imperfect ones, for separation and classification of the prisoners, except as to sex, and even this not always effective, all prisoners of the same sex usually occupying the same room or corridor during the day-time, with no employment but to relate past achievements in crime and to plan new exploits. The whole system is a relic of barbarism, and a disgrace to the civilization of the age. Some improvement is noticeable; and by frequent visits, communications to Boards of Supervisors who are responsible for their condition, and to the public through the press, and sometimes to the judges of the courts who have power in certain cases to order the discontinuance of their use as jails, attention is constantly called to existing evils and to proposed reforms.

The poorhouses all over the State have been greatly improved within the past few years. For want of room in our State asylums

for the insane, many of this class are still kept in poorhouses, and some in jails. In some cases, the chronic insane, who have become partially demented or whose insanity is of a mild and comparatively harmless type, receive proper care and attention; but, as a rule, results in this State do not commend the county system for the care of any class of the insane. Few keepers possess the requisite knowledge and skill, and few poorhouses are furnished with suitable facilities for the purpose.

In the absence of any State provision for the care of the idiotic and feeble-minded, nearly every poorhouse in the State, and some of the jails, have more or less of this helpless and troublesome class. They are a source of great care and anxiety to keepers, a degrading and demoralizing element among other paupers, and are often neglected and become loathsome and pitiable spectacles. An earnest effort has been made by the Board of Corrections and Charities, and will be continued until effective, to secure by legislative action separate and proper provision. Recently, a gentleman* of large experience in the treatment and education of the feeble-minded has established a private asylum for this class, near the city of Kalamazoo, but the number will necessarily be limited, and the expense large. State provision is almost a necessity.

In connection with the work of the board, important matters are confided to county agents, one for each county being appointed by the governor. To them is confided the duty of looking after and caring for the interests of all children under sixteen years of age, accused of crime. They carefully investigate each case, inquire into the parentage, surroundings, and companionship of the accused, make a full written report to the court or magistrate, advise him as to the course to be pursued, attend the trial if one is had, and counsel as to the final disposition to be made of the convicted. If the child is sent to a reformatory, the report of the agent is attached to the mittimus, so that the superintendent of the reformatory is put in full possession of all the facts and circumstances attending the offence, and the previous character, habits, and surroundings of the child.

It is also their duty to secure homes for children who are in our State charitable and reformatory institutions; to examine and report upon applications for such children, that none may be confided to unfit guardians or placed in unsuitable homes; to visit them when so placed, adjust differences between children and guardians, and, when the good of the child requires, to change homes and guardians.

* Dr. C. T. Wilbur, formerly Superintendent of the Illinois Asylum for Feeble-minded Children.

They make to the Board of Corrections and Charities quarterly reports of all their doings as such agents.

On the release of children from either of the reformatories, on expiration of sentence or on leave of absence, the agent of the proper county has notice, and exercises a watchful care and supervision, aids by counsel and advice, and assists in securing employment. It is hoped, also, to make the county agents efficient helps in looking after discharged convicts and in securing for them employment.

Under the provisions of a recent act of the legislature, the Board of Corrections and Charities is required to visit the several State penal, charitable, and reformatory institutions, with special reference to estimates made by the respective boards of control for current expenses and for special purposes, and to report to said boards an opinion as to the necessity and propriety of the granting of the amounts asked for by the legislature, which report must go before the legislature, with the report of the board of control of the institution presenting them. This places upon the board a very delicate and laborious duty, which it has endeavored so to perform that its action and recommendations will have due weight with the legislature.

In December last, the board held a conference of county agents, and convention, continuing for two days, at which many county agents, the members of the board, superintendents, wardens, officers, trustees, managers, etc., of State and private penal, charitable, and reformatory institutions were present, and participated in the reading of papers and discussions on matters pertaining to the work of the agents and of the board. The board also attended and participated in the annual meeting of the superintendents of the Poor and Union Association, at Ann Arbor, in February, 1884, continuing three days. It also attended several State conventions of the State Board of Health. All these bodies and kindred associations act in concert and harmony with the State Board of Corrections and Charities in their efforts to secure needed legislation and reform.

At some of these conventions, it was made to appear that in many instances our criminal laws are used by unscrupulous officers and magistrates, sheriffs, constables, etc., to subserve personal and private ends, and to secure large fees and costs, rather than to secure a due observance of the laws. Especially was this found to be the case in the arrest and punishment of tramps and vagrants, or rather those complained of and arrested as such, for the sake of costs and fees. Public attention has been called to the evil, and it is hoped that legislative action will provide a remedy.

The board has under consideration several measures, with a view to securing legislative action thereon, such as the enlargement of the duties and powers of the county agents, the appointment of a State agent for the care of discharged prisoners, to provide uniform rules for the management of jails and the treatment of persons while confined therein, etc.

It is not necessary to enlarge upon our penal, charitable, and reformatory institutions, or to make special reference to them further than to say that our prisons and asylums are full, and the latter largely owing to the want of district workhouses for short-time prisoners.

Asylums for the Insane.—Both the Michigan Asylum at Kalamazoo and the Eastern Asylum at Pontiac are overcrowded, and will experience only temporary relief when the Northern Asylum in course of erection at Traverse City is completed, as there are already in the State, outside of present asylums, a sufficient number of insane to fill it. Additional and less expensive buildings will probably be erected in connection with the new asylum, where the grounds are spacious and convenient.

Institution for the Education of the Deaf and Dumb.—This institution has been greatly enlarged by the erection of a new building and improved by a thorough overhauling and repairing of the old, so that for several years to come all of the deaf and dumb of suitable age in the State may receive proper care and instruction.

The Blind.—The School for the Blind has been greatly improved and enlarged by the erection of a spacious wing for the girls, and a like wing is in process of erection for the boys; and, when finished, no further buildings will be required for years to come. At this institution, a commodious and convenient cottage has also been erected for the superintendent.

The Reform School.—The Reform School for Boys maintains its reputation as one of the best, if not the very best institution of the kind in the United States. One new building has been erected during the past year, and one or more new and more suitable buildings are required in place of some which are regarded as unsafe.

While work is regarded as essential to reformation and to fit the boys to take their part in after life, great difficulty is experienced in selecting proper and desirable industries. So much is now done by machinery, that the list of industries from which to select is very limited. Profit is not so much regarded as the future good of the boys. Many are employed on the farm and in the care of stock, etc. Some difficulty is also found in finding suitable homes for boys, when, in the

opinion of the superintendent and the board, a longer detention would be injurious rather than beneficial, and they are worthy at least of a trial on leave of absence. From eighteen months to two years is the average time the boys are detained; and it is generally found that, if reformation cannot be effected in two years, but little is to be gained by longer detention.

Industrial Home for Girls.—What has been said with regard to industries and to prolonged institutional life will apply with equal force to the girls in the Industrial Home. This institution is already nearly full. It has accommodations for about two hundred, and the board of control asks for an appropriation to enable it to erect another double cottage for the accommodation of sixty more. A change of policy must be inaugurated, and the girls placed in homes without long detention in the institution, or additional cottages must be erected. The institution is new, and to some extent an experiment; and great care must be exercised in placing the girls in homes. The question of their fitness to withstand the temptation of life, even in the best of homes, is one for careful consideration on the part of the superintendent and managers. They have to feel their way, and too much must not be expected from the institution at this early period in its history.

The State Public School.—This school more than meets the expectations of its warmest advocates, and even now, with its present facilities, can care for all who are entitled to its benefits; and the board of control proposes to ask the legislature to allow children to be sent at two years of age instead of at three, as at present, so that no dependent child in the State, of reasonable soundness of body and mind, between the ages of two and fourteen years, need be found in any poorhouse, or in the streets, or without suitable care and instruction. For the past year, good homes have been found for children from this school, faster than applications have been received for admission.

Asylum for the Criminal Insane.—The building is well under way, and will be completed and occupied within a year, and will furnish great relief to both the asylums and the prisons. It will accommodate about sixty patients, and will no doubt have to be enlarged in the near future.

Monastery and Asylum of the Good Shepherd.—This is a private institution opened at Detroit, on the 22d of November, 1883, by the Sisters of the Good Shepherd, having for its expressed object "to give a home and to train to virtue and to habits of industry poor girls who have fallen from virtue, and young girls or children viciously

inclined or exposed to vice from any cause." No distinction is made on account of creed. Inmates are divided into two classes as indicated above, and each class is kept entirely separate from the other. Since it was opened, twenty-six have entered the reformatory class, and thirteen the preservative class.

Other private, charitable, and reformatory institutions have no doubt been established during the past year, but we cannot give the particulars.

Provision is made in Michigan, by general laws, for the support of the insane in the asylums and for the payment of the salaries of superintendents and officers. Like provision is made by general laws for the support of the prisons and prisoners. Money for the support of both these classes, aside from what is paid by private and county patients in the asylums and earned by work of convicts in the prisons, is drawn on proper vouchers from the general fund in the State treasury. Special appropriations are made to these institutions for specific purposes and improvements. The Reform School, the Industrial Home for Girls, the School for the Blind, and the Institution for the Education of the Deaf and Dumb are supported by appropriations made from year to year for current expenses, as well as for special purposes. A list of appropriations made to such institutions for current expenses, for 1883 and 1884, is appended; also, a list of all appropriations to penal, charitable, and reformatory institutions, for special purposes for the same period.

<i>Current Expenses:—</i>		1883.	1884.
For Reform School, Lansing,		\$45,000.00	\$45,000.00
Average number of inmates for the two years, 385.			
State Public School, Coldwater,		36,000.00	39,000.00
Average number of pupils for same time, 457.			
School for the Blind, Lansing,		23,000.00	26,000.00
Average number of pupils for the same time, 67.			
School for the Deaf and Dumb, Flint,		45,000.00	45,000.00
Average number of pupils for the same time, 266.			
Industrial Home for Girls, Adrian,		30,095.50	35,074.40
Average number for the same time, about 160.			

<i>Special Appropriations:—</i>		
For State Public School, for purchase of land and repairs,		\$16,000.00
School for the Blind, for buildings and repairs,		82,150.00
Industrial Home for Girls, for building, purchase of land, etc.,		35,161.11
Institution for the Deaf and Dumb, for building and repairs,		39,150.00
State House of Correction and Reformatory, new boiler, etc.,		7,443.35
Eastern Asylum for Insane, new boiler, etc.,		2,850.00
Michigan Asylum for Insane Hospital, and repairs,		12,100.00
Asylum for Criminal Insane, building and furnishing,		60,000.00

MINNESOTA.

Rev. H. H. HART, St. Paul.—In Minnesota, the work of the newly established Board of Corrections and Charities has fairly begun. During the preceding year, the board had carefully surveyed its field. County jails and poorhouses have been thoroughly inspected, and the study of State institutions has begun. Statistics have been gathered and tables prepared, exhibiting the comparative expenditures of counties for pauperism. A comparative study of the expenditures of State institutions has been made. Considerable pains has been taken to acquaint the people of the State with the nature and scope of the work of the board, in order to lay foundations for an intelligent public sentiment. Thus far, the board has met with unexpected favor. It is heartily supported by all the leading newspapers of the State. The officers of State and county institutions have co-operated readily. Suggestions, and even severe criticisms, have been courteously received and frequently acted upon. Indeed, in its inexperience, the board has been somewhat embarrassed by the apparent confidence with which its advice has been sought. For whatever usefulness the board has thus far attained, it is largely indebted to the wisdom and efficiency of its president, Governor Lucius F. Hubbard. We believe that Minnesota's State institutions will compare favorably with those of any of the younger States. Two things have especially aided their efficiency: first, economy in building; second, a stable tenure of office. No institution building has cost as much as one thousand dollars per inmate. The School for Imbeciles cost about five hundred dollars per capita; the Second Insane Hospital, not more than seven hundred and fifty. The result is that we have not more than ten or twelve insane in county poorhouses; and we hope to continue to provide for all our insane in State institutions, modestly but comfortably built. It is now ten years since the superintendent of any State institution was dismissed. The superintendents of our seven State institutions have been in the service an average of thirteen years. Omitting the School for Imbeciles, which is only five years old, the average service of the remaining six superintendents is fourteen and a half years. Many of their subordinates have served long terms. The Minnesota plan is to get a good man and keep him.

The School for Imbeciles has had its capacity doubled this year, and will accommodate about one hundred. The coming legislature will be asked to double it again, and provide a custodial department.

The Reform School will ask for means to erect a suitable building for the girls' department.

The Second Insane Hospital will ask means to build detached wards similar to those already built, in connection with the First Insane Hospital.

The administration building of the State prison and the shops destroyed by two disastrous fires last winter have been restored, the burned roof of the cell-room replaced by an iron roof, and an additional cell-room is nearly completed.

The city of St. Paul is about completing a house of correction to accommodate some two hundred and fifty prisoners. The city of Minneapolis is taking steps to provide a similar institution. In both cities, the establishment of charity organization societies is being considered.

There are no permanent appropriations; but the taxes collected from railroad and telegraph companies are set apart to form a "State Institutions Fund," which produces an income sufficient to support the correctional and charitable institutions of the State as well as the normal schools. Several years ago, the legislature set apart three hundred thousand acres of "swamp lands" to create a permanent endowment fund for State institutions. These lands are yet unselected, being wild lands in different parts of the State. It is hoped that they will ultimately produce a fund of a million or a million and a half.

The following is a statement of appropriations made by the legislature of 1883 for correctional and charitable institutions in Minnesota:—

I. FOR THE YEAR ENDING JULY 31, 1884.

1. For current expenses:—

First Hospital for Insane,	\$131,625.00
Second Hospital for Insane,	62,400.00
Deaf and dumb, blind and imbeciles,	55,000.00
Reform School,	35,000.00
State Prison,	60,000.00
Total,	\$344,025.00

2. Special appropriations:—

First Hospital for Insane,	\$38,000.00
Second Hospital for Insane,	13,000.00
Reform School,	6,650.00
Blind and imbecile,	15,000.00
State Prison,	18,000.00
Total for all purposes,	\$90,650.00
	\$434,675.00

II. FOR THE YEAR ENDING JULY 31, 1885.

1. *For current expenses of:—*

First Hospital for Insane,	\$141,375.00	
Second Hospital for Insane,	72,800.00	
Deaf and dumb, blind and imbecile,	60,000.00	
Reform School,	35,000.00	
State Prison,	65,000.00	\$374,175.00

2. *Special appropriations:—*

First Hospital for Insane,	\$16,400.00	
Second Hospital for Insane,	101,000.00	
Reform School,	1,000.00	
Blind and imbecile,	45,000.00	
State Prison,	42,000.00	205,400.00

Total for all purposes, \$579,575.00

Total for year ending July 31, 1884, 434,675.00

Total for year ending July 31, 1885, 579,575.00

Total for two years, \$1,014,250.00

NEBRASKA.

Mr. J. A. GILLESPIE, Omaha.—But one change has been made, during the past year, in the executive officers of the institutions. Dr. G. W. Collins, superintendent of the Reform School at Kearney, resigned, and Mr. Samuel C. Mullin was appointed in his stead. The admissions last year were 24,—18 boys and 6 girls. In this institution, says the superintendent, "we have inaugurated the system of grades by keeping a record of punishments and promotions, also of the social standing of the pupils at home and since they entered the school."

The penitentiary, at Lincoln, has had during the year 260 prisoners, all males except one. No reforms have been recently instituted. The contract labor system is in vogue in this State. The labor and grounds, etc., are leased to a private individual, who assumes all the expenses connected with the management of the prison for the sum of forty-five cents per day per capita. It is the personal opinion of the warden that the prison should be self-sustaining at the present time. The last appropriation for carrying out the lease for two years was \$80,226.25. It is to be hoped that, in the near future, public sentiment will be sufficiently aroused to displace this system, which has nothing to commend it but financial gain to the contractor, by one more in sympathy with the moral sentiment of the people, and one by which reformatory measures can be instituted which will not come in conflict with the monied interests of the management.

Insane Hospital.—The number of patients in the hospital for the insane is 346. No new legislation is proposed, other than the enlargement of the institution.

Institute for the Blind.—The number of pupils is 28. It is proposed to establish a hospital where blind children can have the benefit of an experienced oculist in the treatment of the eyes, at the expense of the State.

Deaf and Dumb.—There have been 108 children attending this school during the year,—67 boys and 41 girls. The boys are instructed in printing and carpenter-work: the girls are trained to sew, do fancy work, general housework, etc. Special effort is made in this institution to cultivate and develop the dormant hearing remaining to many of the children who find their way into this school. A more full report of this special work was made at the last meeting of this Conference at Louisville.

Woman's Work in Nebraska.—The one organized State charity (woman's charity) is the Home for the Friendless, at Lincoln. This Home received from the State an appropriation of \$7,000 for the purchase of grounds and erection of buildings. It is supported by donations. Since October, 1883, it has cared for 31 friendless women over twenty years of age, 26 between five and twenty, 16 between ten and five, and 37 infants. Under one roof are gathered the aged, the orphan, the fallen, and the deserted wife during the trying period incident to motherhood. The women of Nebraska are developing a plan to organize their work into distinct charities. They propose to memorialize the next legislature for State aid in establishing a Home for the Aged, an Orphanage, an Industrial School, a Home for Fallen Women, and a Lying-in Hospital, which, together with the present Home, will constitute an association of charities which will reach all classes and conditions.

They have already promises of aid for some of these institutions from charitable gentlemen. One has deeded in trust a property valued at \$6,000, for the purpose of aiding in establishing an orphanage, to be called "The Chandler Home for Friendless Children." Profifers of land and money have been received from different towns to aid in the same. Other offers of land have been tendered from other parts of the State to aid these different institutions. These projects, which are before the ladies of the State, will, it is hoped, take shape in no distant future.

Private Charities.—There are many charitable enterprises in the State, under private control, which do great good. St. Joseph's Hos-

pital in Omaha, supported by donations, cared for 297 charity patients during the year. The Child's Hospital has cared for and treated 25 children and 15 adults. The object of this charity is to nurse sick children and care for well ones, at a nominal sum, while their parents are out at work. The Woman's Christian Association, organized within the year, is doing a good work. Its aim is to raise the standard of morality among the fallen, feed the hungry, and school the ignorant. It is supported by private donations.

Feeble-minded.—We have in this State, according to the census report, 356 feeble-minded persons. No provision is made for their care or instruction. It is proposed to memorialize the legislature this winter for the establishment of an institution for their benefit.

In looking over the charitable work done in our young State and comparing it with that of others, we do not feel ashamed of the comparison. Our institutions are a credit to the intelligence and benevolence of our people. We hope in the very near future to see all classes of the needy provided for.

We have no State Board of Charities, but hope soon to have one, which shall give organized direction to the charitable work of the State.

NEW JERSEY.

Mr. P. H. LAVERTY, Trenton.—I have received your letter of September 1, propounding certain inquiries, which I answer in their order as follows:—

“What new legislation has been had with reference to the charities and corrections of the State?”

An act of last winter created a State Council of Charities and Corrections. The membership is by appointment of the governor.

“Have any new institutions been created?”

No, but it may be stated that during the year the State Asylum for the Deaf and Dumb in Trenton has been put in operation, is in excellent working order, and its inmates number one hundred.

“Have there been any changes by death or otherwise in the officers of the institution?”

The Board of Control of the State Reform School for Boys at Jamesburg has accepted the resignation of one of its trustees, Mr. George W. Helme; and the governor has appointed Hon. A. A. Harnden, of Jersey City. Mr. C. M. Harrison, of the Newark City Home at Verona, has been appointed superintendent of the Jamesburg Reform School, *vice* Mr. Eastman resigned.

“Are there evidences of increased interest in the public mind on

the subject of charities and corrections?" and "Have any new voluntary associations been organized?"

An association of Trenton ladies, the outgrowth of the Woman's National Christian Temperance Union, has for several months visited the State prison weekly, distributing tracts and carrying fruit to the sick. Their words of advice to all have been of good effect.

"What new movements are on foot?" None that I am aware of.

"Has there been any change in the policy of the State?"

The contract labor system was abolished by the last legislature, and will take effect in June, 1885. It is probable that either the "public account" or the "piece price" plan will be adopted in employing labor of the prison.

"Append statement of the amount and character of the appropriations made by the legislature."

The law creating a "Council of Charities" provides for an annual appropriation of one thousand dollars. Appropriations for the maintenance of State charities are special, and the information concerning them is not at hand. I was under the impression that these several reports were on file with the department, but I am told that this information can only be obtained by searching through the laws of the various years. A report of the State Board of Charities will be made to this coming legislature.

NEW YORK.

Dr. CHARLES S. HOYT, Albany.—There has been but one institution created by the State during the year; namely, the Northern New York Institution for Deaf Mutes, at Malone. This is placed upon the same basis as other institutions of this class, to be maintained by annual *pro rata* legislative appropriations. It opened with the present school year, having about twenty-five pupils.

The only important legislation affecting the charities and corrections of the State during the year is the following:—

1. Providing for the transfer of the insane confined in State asylums, upon criminal charges, to the Asylum for Insane Convicts, at Auburn. These transfers may be made on the order of any justice of the Supreme Court, and a number of such transfers have already been effected. It is probable that, in the end, the State asylums will be thus entirely relieved of the custody and care of this class of insane.

2. Requiring the managers of all charitable institutions to deposit their funds in some trust company, national bank, or other approved

fiscal agent. This will prevent speculation in the public funds, and thus lessen the chances of loss to the State. The act is now in full operation.

3. By concurrent resolution of the Senate and Assembly, the attorney-general, the comptroller, and the president of the State Board of Charities were appointed a committee to devise and present to the next legislature a plan for the better accounting of the public moneys by the State institutions. The committee has made some progress in its work, but the results have not as yet been furnished to the public.

4. By an act of the legislature last winter, no contracts for labor in prisons, penitentiaries, reformatories, etc., can hereafter be entered into; and the contract system of labor in these institutions is to cease with the expiration of the present contracts. A recent decision of the attorney-general construes the act so as to prevent the employment of prisoners, etc., even by the piece, upon contract.

During the year, Dr. John B. Chapin, superintendent of the Willard Asylum for the Insane from its organization, resigned, and has accepted the superintendency of the Pennsylvania State Hospital for the Insane at Philadelphia. He has been succeeded by Dr. P. M. Wise, for several years the senior assistant physician of the institution. Dr. G. A. Doren, appointed superintendent of the State Idiot Asylum at Syracuse in October, 1883, recently resigned, and has been succeeded by Dr. J. C. Carson, late superintendent of the New York Institution for the Deaf and Dumb. The appointments in the State institutions are wholly non-partisan; and the appointees are subject to the civil service rules and regulations, under the act of the legislature of 1883.

The general policy of New York in regard to its charities and corrections remains unchanged, except as before noticed. An increasing interest by the public, in respect to charitable and correctional work, is apparent throughout the State. This is especially true in regard to the oversight and care of the insane and poor and in the management of the poorhouses. Nearly all the superintendents of the poor, whose terms expire with this year, have been renominated by their respective parties; and there is a growing sentiment in the State in favor of retaining competent and faithful officers having the supervision and custody of the insane and poor. Many of the superintendents are serving in their third, fourth, fifth, sixth, and more terms of three years each; and, in one county (Cayuga), the superintendent has served continuously ten terms, or thirty years, and he is

renominated, and doubtless will be re-elected for the eleventh time. A large number of the keepers of the county poorhouses have served without interruption for over ten years; and, in several instances, they have been continued, notwithstanding political changes in the counties. While there is a probable increase in the number of insane in the State,—at least, more proportionately are brought to public notice than formerly,—there is little or no increase in pauperism from other sources.

There have been no new associations for charitable or reformatory work formed in the State the present year, except possibly charitable organization societies in cities. The State Charities Aid Association of New York City continues its work, and the work of the State Board is furthered by the visiting committees appointed by it in various counties. A fair degree of activity is shown by this association and these committees, and the board regards them as valuable auxiliaries.

The subject of emigration is one of the most important questions affecting the charitable and penal work of New York. It is clearly established that the State is being constantly and heavily burdened by the influx of lunatic, idiotic, imbecile, crippled, and otherwise infirm and helpless chronic alien paupers and criminals, systematically deported to this country for no other apparent purpose than to rid the communities in which they were born of troublesome and expensive burdens. The evil, pointed out at length in the last annual report of the New York State Board, is a growing one, gradually extending to other States, and thus assuming a national importance, demanding federal legislative action.

A DELEGATE asked whether there had been any check to pauper immigration through New York.

DR. HOYT.—Very slight. The Congressional act of 1882 provides for a tax of fifty cents upon each person arriving from foreign countries, to be paid to the collector of the port at which the person may land. The examination of immigrants and the execution of the act are dependent upon local boards or officers, under contract with the Secretary of the Treasury. The investigation at the various ports is not always so thorough as it should be; and improper persons, who ought immediately to be sent back in the vessels bringing them to the country, are not infrequently permitted to land and find their way to the interior, to burden the public. In 1880, the New York legislature authorized the State Board of Charities to return to the

countries whence they were shipped any lunatic, idiotic, epileptic, or otherwise infirm alien pauper ; and small annual appropriations, since then, have been made for this purpose. The return of these classes has been steadily kept up by the Board, and I learn that Pennsylvania has recently taken like measures to protect itself in this direction. The Commissioners of Emigration return some of these classes landing in New York, and the Massachusetts State Board some of those landing in Boston. The whole system relating to emigration, however, is extremely defective ; and the country, especially the seaboard States, is being constantly and heavily burdened by the shipment of helpless chronic paupers and criminals to its shores. The West also begins in this respect to feel the burdens thrust upon it, largely over the Canadian borders. The act of Congress needs revision, placing the whole subject of emigration under the control and direction of federal authorities ; and there is no question of greater importance likely to come before this Conference. I trust that some positive action will be taken in the matter before our adjournment.

NORTH CAROLINA.

No report was received from the State of North Carolina.

OHIO.

Mr. W. H. NEFF.—The Board of State Charities of Ohio has the honor to report that the public institutions of Ohio are in excellent condition.

The change in political administration has, thus far, not been detrimental to the institutions, both parties appearing to be animated by a generous rivalry to excel each other in the proper care and judicious advancement of the public charities. If local interests can be kept subservient to the general welfare, each year will witness substantial progress. In the insane asylums, the improvement is great. The attendants appear to be kind, gentle, and judicious. Mechanical restraint is nearly abandoned. There are open wards in all the asylums, whose inmates, within suitable limits, can go and come at pleasure. The voluntary employment of patients in landscape and kitchen gardening and horticulture, and in interior decoration, quilting, needle-work, etc., has greatly increased, with marked improvement in health and composure. The fare is excellent, the provisions are of the best quality, and the cooking in all the State institutions is remarkably good. The fidelity and watchfulness of the local boards

of trustees, with the co-operation of very capable and efficient superintendents, have accomplished these results, and at the same time have materially reduced the expenses, so that the per capita cost of this year is lower than the last. The Board of State Charities of Ohio feels that it cannot too highly commend this feature of the public charities of Ohio; for there is no pay department in any of the Ohio institutions, but the entire expense is defrayed by the State. And, by this economy and good management, the public confidence is not abused; and honest tax-payers have the assurance that their hard-earned money is properly expended, and they are thus prepared for new and enlarged schemes of benevolence. Governor Hoadly personally visits the institutions, and by his presence and counsel has greatly encouraged the local authorities in their work.

The erection of the new asylum at Toledo is progressing favorably, notwithstanding unexpected difficulty in obtaining a suitable foundation. It will accommodate 1,060 patients, at a contracted cost of not over \$500,000, of which \$200,000 has been appropriated. The advanced legislation of the preceding General Assembly in reference to children has been supplemented this year by providing that a child cannot be kept in a county infirmary unless separated from adults, and by authorizing and instructing county commissioners to provide for them in "Children's Homes."

But the great work of the past year in Ohio has been in prison reform; and the present legislature, by one comprehensive law, has placed Ohio in the van of progress.

The State penitentiary has been reorganized. A board of directors has been appointed, to serve without compensation for its services. The contract system has been abolished, yet a wise discretion has been given to the Board of Directors in carrying out this provision of the law; and so well has it exercised it that the penitentiary will this year be more than self-supporting. The last monthly report showed a surplus of \$3,400. The courts are allowed to give a general sentence, and the law provides how such sentence may be terminated. Violators of parole are to be treated as escaped prisoners. A daily record of behavior is kept, legal rights are restored by good conduct, and the period of sentence diminished. Sick prisoners are entitled to benefits. The whole prison is graded, and prisoners are advanced or sent back according to behavior. A proportion of earnings is set apart for prisoners, and the whole management of the prison is upon the most judicious basis. The consequence is that a marked improvement has already taken place in the conduct of pris-

oners. They work better and more cheerfully, require much less punishment, give less trouble, and are much more likely again to become good citizens. On the 1st of November, forty per cent. of the prisoners will be advanced to the first grade. Another law, which has not yet gone into effect, provides for the establishment of an intermediate penitentiary.

The new edifice for the Institution for Feeble-minded Youth, erected in place of the one destroyed by fire, is now completed and ready for occupancy. It is entirely fire-proof, and is admirably adapted to the wants of the institution.

The following summary, prepared by our secretary, Rev. Dr. A. G. Byers, exhibits at a glance the names, location, number of inmates, total yearly cost, and per capita cost of all the State and county institutions. The Board of State Charities respectfully presents it for careful consideration. Ohio is a central State, and the cost of supporting the inmates of these institutions in Ohio will certainly form a reliable basis for comparison.

GENERAL SUMMARY.

Name of Institution.	Location.	Total Number for the Year.	Daily Aver'ge.	Total Current Expenses for the Year, including Salar'g.	Per Capita Cost.
State Benevolent Institutions:—					
Asylum for Insane,	Athens,	841	626	\$99,436.37	\$158.84
Asylum for Insane,	Cleveland,	866	634	113,152.32	170.51
Asylum for Insane,	Columbus,	1,151	847	179,803.54	201.12
Asylum for Insane,	Dayton,	763	590	99,503.99	168.36
Asylum for Insane,	Carthage,	848	661	95,596.03	144.62
Asylum for Insane,	Toledo,	165	120	20,803.58	173.36
Institution for Deaf and Dumb,	Columbus,	505	420	78,390.32	186.64
Institution for Blind,	Columbus,	238	174	37,990.87	218.34
Institution for Feeble-minded Youths,	Columbus,	519	502	104,077.63	164.70
Soldiers' and Sailors' Orphans' Home,	Xenia,	681	673	105,339.34	156.52
Penal and Reformatory:—					
Ohio Penitentiary,	Columbus,	1,916	1,364	192,187.96	140.89
Reform School for Boys,	Lancaster,	638	458	65,399.00	142.79
Girls' Industrial Home,	Delaware,	326	265	36,338.64	137.13
Workhouse,	Cincinnati,	3,030	424	63,558.62	149.65
Workhouse,	Cleveland,	1,448	340	33,315.80	138.24
House of Refuge,	Cincinnati,	539	313	36,449.75	116.45
House of Refuge,	Cleveland,	175	109	10,278.20	93.44
House of Correction,	Toledo,	*19,481.55
County Institutions:—					
Children's Homes,	1,923	1,019	121,558.90	92.68
County Infirmarys,	13,244	5,244	685,014.38	130.62
County Jails,	8,690	109,438.35
Total,	38,506	14,683	\$2,307,115.34
Out-door relief disbursed by infirmarys,	225,388.21
Grand total,	\$2,532,503.45

* Amount paid by the State.

OREGON.

Rev. G. H. ATKINSON, D.D., Portland.—The insane have been removed from the private hospital at East Portland to the new, improved, and thoroughly constructed asylum, built by the State, at Salem.

The penitentiary continues to employ convicts in useful labor, under the contract system, and in local improvements. Some incipient but unsuccessful steps have been taken to establish reformatories for youth; but, for lack of faith or funds, they have made little progress. Poorhouses are common in our counties. In some cases, the poor are put in care of the lowest bidder.

This city has for many years had a Ladies' Relief Society, in which have been gathered helpless and homeless orphans. It has always met public approval, and with funds given it is now building a large and convenient orphanage. Its survey and help reach poor families in their homes. It aims to help the helpless to the extent of its own means. The Germans have some forms of aiding their poor. They have schools for special training of their youth. The Hebrews have also aid and protective associations for their own people. Three well-appointed hospitals are open here to the sick and suffering.

The State provides for the care and instruction of its deaf and dumb and blind by a biennial appropriation of about \$5,000 for each class. These sums provide teachers and temporary homes for these classes on an economical plan. Larger sums will doubtless be asked and granted at the next biennial session of the legislature, in January, 1885.

In a young and thinly populated State, the necessity and the means to support large and costly asylums do not exist. Our greatest wisdom is to forecast and prevent evils, and thus avert their oppressively painful results.

PENNSYLVANIA.

Mr. PHILIP C. GARRETT, Philadelphia.—Three additional members have been commissioned on the Board of Public Charities; namely, ex-Governor Henry M. Hoyt, E. Coppée Mitchell, Esq., and Dr. Thomas G. Morton.

Dr. Diller Luther, general agent and secretary of the board, has resigned, and has been succeeded by Mr. Cadwalader Biddle.

Under the act of August 3, 1882, to regulate immigration, important and valuable service has been rendered. Previous to the passage

of this act there was no law to prevent foreign paupers from landing in this country. Therefore, that portion of said act which states that convicts, lunatics, idiots, or persons unable to take care of themselves shall not be permitted to land, is of practical significance, inasmuch as the Commonwealth is not further burdened with the support of such classes, because they are not now permitted to land. During the year ending with the thirtieth day of June, 1884, 20,322 immigrants arrived at the port of Philadelphia.

The counties of Bucks, Lackawanna, Westmoreland, and Allegheny are erecting new jails, and the county of Fayette a new almshouse.

There has been no legislature in session this year, and therefore no new legislation.

RHODE ISLAND.

Mr. W. W. CHAPIN, Providence.—The most important step taken in our State in matters of charities and corrections the past year is the passage of an act establishing a State home and school for children. Nothing definite has been done, so far as I know, toward carrying the act into effect. Our board has nothing to do with the new institution, except that we may send to it children from the State almshouse.

Action has been taken by the legislature looking to the sending of all the insane poor to the State asylum, which is not equipped as a curative hospital, being merely, as its name indicates, an asylum for chronic cases. Our board has not thought this a very wise measure. The law having been postponed several times, it may yet be modified.

About a year ago, our esteemed chairman, Prof. George I. Chace, was obliged, by the condition of his health, to resign his position on the board. In May of this year, Dr. Job Kenyon, a very valuable member, also tendered his resignation. The place of Prof. Chace was filled by the appointment of Hon. William S. Hayward, recently mayor of Providence; and Hon. Henry L. Greene, of Warwick, succeeded Dr. Kenyon. Mr. Greene has represented his town in the State Senate, and is highly esteemed and respected. Both are excellent appointments. Hon. James M. Pendleton was chosen chairman by the board.

On September 1, Mr. F. M. Howe, superintendent of the Reform School for Boys (Sockanosset School), left, having resigned the position a few weeks before, and was succeeded by Mr. James H. Eastman, from the New Jersey Reform School for Boys.

The appropriations of money for our work have been as follows:—

For the expenses of all the institutions, together, in addition to their earnings and receipts for board, etc.,	\$100,000.00
For constructing three additional buildings for the insane,	40,000.00
For constructing an additional "Home," and for finishing the wall and grounds of the Boys' Reform School,	20,000.00
For "procuring such machinery and mechanical tools and apparatus and materials for the use of the State Reform School as the Board of State Charities and Corrections may deem suitable and necessary for the instruction of the inmates thereof in such of the ordinary arts, crafts, and trades as they may show a taste or capacity for,"	1,500.00

TENNESSEE.

Judge FERRIS, Nashville.—The last legislature appropriated for 1883-84 \$114,000, to defray expenses for the old lunatic asylum; for the deaf and dumb at Knoxville, \$47,500; for the blind in Nashville, \$42,500. It also appropriated \$25,900 in addition, to meet expenses for lunatics in the Nashville asylum; also \$80,000 to build a new lunatic asylum at Knoxville, East Tennessee, for the lunatics of that portion of the State. Our other charities are managed by counties and individual effort. All appropriations are made when the legislature meets, once in two years.

UTAH.

Gen. M. M. BANE, Salt Lake City. — *First.* "As to charity organization in towns and cities."—We have but two considerable towns in Utah; to wit, Salt Lake City and Ogden. Salt Lake City has a population of twenty-five or thirty thousand, and Ogden a population of seven or eight thousand. Ogden is forty miles from Salt Lake City. There is no law of the territory or city ordinance in force by which such city charitable organizations are fostered or in any way aided. The only helps of the kind that exist are in and under the control of the various religious organizations, and consist of voluntary associations therein for the relief of the poor and distressed.

Second. "The organization and management of reformatories and houses of refuge."—There is not a semblance of such an institution in Utah; and there has never been an attempt by the legislature or the Mormon Church to originate anything like it, and most likely never will be while the Mormon hierarchy holds in its ecclesiastical clutch the absolute civil and political power of this territory. The

legislative authority of the territory would not move in the direction of such legislation without instruction from the head of the Church, for all civil authority is subordinate to church rule in this territory.

Third. "On the organization and management of prisons and penitentiaries."—The only prisons here excepting the United States penitentiary are the county and city jails. In neither of these prisons, the county jail or the city jail, is there any discipline of any kind relating to industry or hygiene, or any instruction. The only punishment administered for infraction of rules and regulations is the keeper's "billy club" or breaking rock on the street. Our penitentiary is situated about four miles from Salt Lake City, and is constructed of sun-dried brick called "adobe," through the wall of which any ordinary man could cut a hole with a case-knife in an hour or two. Such is the structure of the enclosure. About one acre of ground is enclosed by these walls, and the walls are about fifteen feet high. Within the walls, a few cells and other apartments are built of more substantial material than the walls. All convicted felons (now numbering 74) as well as those awaiting trial (now numbering 15) are here confined; and the government and discipline are under the United States marshal's exclusive control, subject to the orders of the Attorney-General of the United States. There is no system of employment or industry for the inmates, save tilling a small garden; nor are there any regulations for religious, moral, or intellectual instruction, save an occasional sermon preached by some volunteer minister of Salt Lake City. There is no library or other reading matter provided by the authorities for the inmates. No law, no rules or regulations exist by which an inmate gets credit for faithfulness, good conduct, or otherwise. The average number of inmates varies from sixty to eighty per year, but is on the increase. The prison was built by authority of the Mormon Church in 1854, and held and controlled by them till the year 1870, when it was transferred to the United States Attorney-General, for the United States, for \$32,000,—more than twice what it would now cost to reproduce it. The cost of feeding, clothing, heating, guarding, and doctoring is about seventy cents per man, per day. The only mode of punishment or discipline used in the prison is the solitary cell and bread and water. The United States Marshal informs me that this punishment has always proved sufficient in the very worst cases.

Fourth. "On police system and administration."—In the two cities referred to above, the whole system is loose and very unsatisfactory. Very few, if any, feel that our police system is any safe-

guard to them or their houses against thieves and burglars. I am of the opinion that most good citizens and property owners would sleep just as soundly and securely, if our present system were utterly abolished. The police are not only no bar to drunkenness, gambling, and prostitution, but their system of periodically raiding such houses, merely for money, is really a protection to the vilest and most dangerous classes of all cities. In many cases of arrest by our police, a system of the most cruel brutality follows. In arresting a man, not long since, for shooting down a policeman on the street while in discharge of his duty, he was beaten down, was then dragged insensible to jail, a rope was flung around his neck, and he was strung up to a limb till life was extinct, then taken down and dragged about the alleys and streets, to the great delight of the rabble, the leaders of the mob being policemen themselves; and nobody was found to interfere with the brutal and disgraceful proceeding, nor has been to this day. Such is at times an exhibition of the discipline and character of our police system.

Fifth. "On the organization of poorhouses."—We have no poorhouses in this territory. There is under our law no provision for county or territorial poorhouses. The only law we have on the subject provides that any poor person may compel his near relatives, if able, to support him, and leaves the poor utterly without any other remedy, when that is unavailable. There are many voluntary charitable associations among the churches for aiding the poor, but none by public law.

Sixth. "On provision for the chronic insane."—Two years or more ago, the legislature, for the first time, provided for the erection of an insane hospital, which is now in process of erection, though not yet ready for the reception of inmates; but it will be in a few months. All provision heretofore for the chronic insane has been exclusively under the control of private citizens. As a consequence, there has been much dissatisfaction, and the severest criticism of this great neglect. Some physicians in the territory have established private hospitals for the treatment of the chronic insane, but it has never been satisfactory.

Seventh. "On provision for idiots."—Nothing has ever been done by the legislature, nor has any provision even been suggested; although there is a large number of such unfortunates in this territory, in proportion to population. There is doubtless a much larger proportion of physical, intellectual, and moral defectives in this territory, in proportion to the population, than in any other portion of

the United States. The reasons of the above facts are quite evident to those who understand the system of emigration population and increase practised by the Mormon Church, both in its domestic as well as foreign missionary methods.

Eighth. "On child-saving work."—Nothing on this subject has been done publicly or privately, although there is a crying demand for it in this city. The religious and social system taught here from the pulpit, press, and schools by the Mormon people, who make up nine-tenths of the population, has engendered a fearful lethargy of sensibility, care, and conscience, among the mass of the people, on the questions of illegitimacy, bastardy, and promiscuity; much more, I apprehend, than can be found in any equal number of people claiming to be civilized in any country on earth.

VERMONT.

Mr. W. G. FAIRBANK, Vergennes.—Our public institutions—the State prison, House of Correction, and Reform School—are all in excellent condition, and, save a few changes proposed in the internal arrangements of the State prison, are in a condition to continue their specific work without further expense to the State, except in the direction of current or running expenses.

In November, 1883, at the suggestion of Governor Barstow and in accordance with the provision of the law, a school was established in the House of Correction, which will doubtless prove to be one of the best steps in the right direction that has been taken. The discipline in the above institution—without exception, we believe—will commend itself to all experts in this line of labor, as of high grade and character. The economy with which the prison is managed reflects credit upon those intrusted with the care of the prisoners. There is, however, a principle not as yet fully recognized by Vermont through her penal institutions,—that the reformation of the prisoner or criminal is an end to be sought, with faith that it may be, on the part of many, attained, as well as to execute justice and impose punishment for the offence. In this line of work, although thought is being given to the subject and some steps have already been taken to this end, much is to be accomplished before we shall have performed our whole duty.

Although the insane of our State are cared for in a private institution, we are constrained to believe that they are better cared for than in most State institutions. A visit to the Vermont Asylum for the Insane, at Brattleboro, will, we believe, convince one of the truth of

this statement, since humane and skilful treatment of this unfortunate class can but elicit approval.

Our homes for destitute children—supported entirely by private charity—can but be spoken of in high terms of praise, as we review the good they have accomplished by their truly beneficent work of caring for innocent, homeless, or orphan children, and thus saving them from entering the paths of sin.

WISCONSIN.

Mr. H. H. GILES, Madison.—Since the last session of this annual Conference, Wisconsin has been a biennial State, and no session of its legislature has been held. Consequently, we report no change in the laws governing our penal, reformatory, and charitable institutions. The public institutions of the State continue to do good work, and the private charities are reasonably prosperous.

The work of the State Board of Charities and Reform has been quite largely devoted to looking after the county institutions for the care of the chronic insane. Eleven counties have now provided accommodations for the care of the chronic insane, and the aggregate number cared for October 1 was 615. One other county will complete its building within sixty days, and will care for 60. After another year of trial, we are able to speak even more confidently of the value of the system and its superiority over any other that masses large numbers in one institution. As a consequence of smaller numbers, very little restraint is found necessary, and occupation can be provided for all. Individual attention can be given; and recoveries are becoming quite frequent, and the general improvement of all the inmates is marked.

Under the management of the State Board of Supervision, the expenses of the State institutions have been materially reduced during the last three years.

Under a law passed three years ago, providing for the establishment of private insane asylums, three such institutions are in process of construction, and will be ready for the reception of patients during the present autumn months.

THE CHARITABLE INSTITUTIONS OF ST. LOUIS.

BY BISHOP C. F. ROBERTSON.

Leaving to the corresponding secretary of the State of Missouri to report to the Conference on the condition of the general institutions of the State, the committee appointed to report on the institutions in St. Louis begs leave to state the following facts, derived in part from the reports of the officers and verified by actual observation.

In the workhouse during the last year there has been a total of 3,043 inmates, with a daily average of 318, three-fourths of whom are males. The appropriation of \$49,000 was expended within \$315.93. The computed earnings of the prisoners amount to \$52,879.03. The men are engaged in quarrying and grading on the rock pile. The women are employed, under contract, in brush making. There were but four deaths during the year, three of which occurred within forty-eight hours of the commitment of the persons. The accommodations are utterly inadequate to the numbers received. In the male cell-building, about one-half of the cells had seven, others had eight, and some had ten inmates each. In the building for females there were twenty per cent. more inmates than there were sleeping quarters for. In wet weather, the only place for drying the clothes of 300 inmates is the female cell-building; and a portion of this cell space has also to be used for the brush-factory work. This makes it in winter very unhealthy and disagreeable. Moreover, the position of the boilers for heating the female cell-building has caused the building to be condemned by the board of underwriters and by the commissioner of public buildings, as tending to increase the possibilities of fire, and certain to cause large loss of life in case of fire or explosion or the bursting of a steam-pipe. A distinct warning is given of this danger, which ought to be heeded. The dining-room is small and old and inconvenient.

The insane asylum and the poorhouse are on the same grounds and close to each other. In the asylum there were 420 cases at the close of the official year. In spite of the dismissal to the insane wards of the poorhouse of 61 incurables, the building, which at the time of its erection was designed for 250 inmates, is crowded with

nearly 450. Not only the dormitories but the passages have to be filled with mattresses. The result of such overcrowding is, the physicians declare, a complete bar to curative treatment. The result is that an undue proportion of patients, who might be restored, become confirmed lunatics and a permanent charge upon the city. Dr. Kirkbride, an authority in alienism, says that, of recent cases of insanity properly treated, between 80 and 90 per cent. recover. When neglected, but few get well. In our city asylum, the figures show that of the whole number treated during the past year, only $6\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., and of recent admittances but 10 per cent., have recovered. Even if it be granted that Dr. Kirkbride's estimate is too high, this is a bad showing. It is a pitiful economy to pursue a policy like this. There is also ground of complaint that the insane adults and children are compelled to be crowded together. The condition of the insane children is pitiable, indeed. The overcrowding of the asylum is the source of many troubles. The insane now lodged in and almost entirely occupying the poorhouse should all be under one management. The care of them should be in the hands of the State, in order that this institution may be worked in harmony with the others of the State. The urgent recommendation of the superintendent—that, as in New York, a central institution should be established for incurables—is worthy of favorable attention. It would give relief as to numbers, and it would by better classification make possible the cure of a larger proportion of cases.

The health commissioner reports that the poorhouse is but an annex to the insane asylum, for the reason that the original poorhouse is almost exclusively occupied by the insane; and, therefore, the pauper department is placed in the rear brick building constructed for the boilers and for storage, and in two frame buildings temporarily rented, and not on the poorhouse grounds. The average number of inmates is 727, sometimes rising to over 800, of whom at this time 115 are insane persons. These quarters are crowded to excess, even the hallways having at times to be filled with beds. The facilities essential to cleanliness are wanting, and the fact that the inmates are scattered in improvised quarters renders all efforts to keep them in good condition abortive. Besides this, the incongruity of mingling the paupers and the insane is palpable to any one. The commissioner very naturally urges the erection of a suitable building for the paupers, entirely detached from the grounds of the insane asylum, and of sufficient capacity. With this should be joined a farm on which the poor could raise enough to support themselves. This measure is of

critical importance. The poorhouse building is larger than is required for the paupers, and is well adapted for the care of the incurably insane. But these have almost entirely crowded out those for whom the building was designed. The care required by the two classes is wholly different. The aged and sick poor are wearied by the constant outcries of the incurably insane. The cost of the institution, which is now charged wholly against the poor, is to the extent of four-fifths properly to be charged to the care of the insane. The poor department entirely takes care of itself. Besides this, the necessity for lodging the aged paupers on the ground floor, directly over the boilers, is an intolerable grievance in hot weather, and in the winter is a constant menace, in case of fire or explosion, to the lives of those who could not get out in case of accident.

In the House of Refuge there has been a daily average of 221 inmates, about three-fourths of whom are males. They range from four to fifteen years of age. The average period of detention was 22½ months, although the length of time in the institution of some of those discharged during the last year amounted to over one hundred months. The boys make shoes and chairs. Of the 368 inmates during the year, one died. The expenditures amounted to \$35,999.56. The receipts from labor amounted to \$5,250. The cause assigned for the largest number of commitments is incorrigibility; and, while no girls older than fifteen years have been committed, four were placed in the house for prostitution.

The new building which has been erected for the purpose of separating the boys who are there because of loss of home or parents, or destitution, and those who have been committed for crime, has stood unfinished for months, because of the want of an adequate appropriation for its completion. As it is now, all that has been expended goes for nothing; and the house, by mingling these characters, is in danger of spreading contaminating influences from evil-minded boys. The new building, when finished, will also afford needed additional room. The work done and taught in the institution should have for its primary object, not the securing of the largest income from the labor of the children, but the imparting to them, with a measure of completeness, practical experience in such a trade as will assure them a fair support anywhere.

As the city also assumes toward these children the relation of parent, the committee thinks that provision should be made for their moral and religious care, as well as for their physical needs. This is now only done in a hap-hazard manner, voluntarily, by such kindly disposed persons as offer.

In the city jail there have been 1,549 committals, with an average number of prisoners on hand of 178. The total cost of the jail to the city for the year was \$28,187. The health of the jail is good. The cells, however, of the female prisoners are just opposite and close by those of the murderers' row, and access to the cells is by a stairway alongside of that which goes to the men's cells, so that communications and conversations across from the men to the women are almost inevitable, and cannot but be a source of evil. The women should be placed in a portion of the prison remote and detached from that occupied by the men. Moreover, while there is a matron now in the jail, whose attentions have to a degree modified the evil, yet it is a fact still that female prisoners brought in have to submit to an examination of their clothing and persons by the officers, in the open corridors, in full view. It may very clearly be apprehended that this practice, in the case of suspects and young offenders, is in every way to be deprecated. It is an offence to modesty, and a temptation which ought to be removed by the remitting of this entire work to a female examiner.

The number treated in the city hospital during the year was 5,792, over 600 more than the previous year. Nearly one-third of these were non-residents. The average number of inmates is 430. The cost of the hospital, altogether, for current expenses, was \$62,151.27. In view of the rapid increase of the number of cases—more than one hundred per cent. in four years—even with the relief that might be looked for by a more complete inspection, and remitting to the poorhouse and other places of those whose ailments are trivial, and with a renewed use of the dispensary and out-of-door treatment, the need is evident that in one shape or another some larger accommodations must be had, in order to a more complete classification and isolation of patients. Whether this is had, sooner or later, however, one source of complication should be removed, the care of nominal patients—boarders, who are exacting in their demands, and confuse the service and discipline of the institution. Much is anticipated in the training school for nurses, which is soon expected to go into operation, from which a relief force of competent attendants is looked for.

The Female Hospital was acquired while the social evil law was in force, and was entirely paid for by the tax levied on houses of ill-fame; and, when that law ceased, the institution was turned over to the city, with a proviso that in it all prostitutes afflicted with venereal diseases should be freely treated. In it now, however, all females

with any form of sickness are received. The admissions last year numbered 1,563, and the daily average of cases was 171. The expenditures amounted to \$46,654.60, and the daily cost of maintenance of each patient is seventy cents. The special need here is a lying-in ward, where those approaching maternity may not be injured by the unhealthy influence of many of the forms of disease treated in the hospital. There is also a pressing need that the dining-room facilities should be greatly enlarged. As it is now, the old galleries on each floor, glazed in, have to be used; and these are very hot in summer, being to the west, and very cold in winter. The statistics show a very satisfactory condition in the results of medical treatment, as out of one hundred lying-in cases there was a ratio of but one death. The efficiency of the superintendence of this institution is worthy of emphasis.

Along with the suggestions which have been heretofore made, your committee urge:

First. The need of more accommodations for the insane in the State.

Second. They regret that the scheme for a reform school in the State was not carried out at the last meeting of the legislature, and urge that its erection be no longer delayed, and recommend that in such institution farm-work as well as mechanical labor be taught and practised.

Third. They urge that a scheme for charity organization in this city should without delay be adopted, as imparting intelligence, certainty, and economy to the expenditures made for charity, and also as tending to reduce pauperism and the spirit of dependence.

Fourth. They urge the creation of a State board of charities, as tending to greater economy and efficiency in the administration of the charitable and correctional work of the State; in this, following the line which has been found necessary in all the large States of the Union.

Mr. WINES.—The suggestions contained in the paper read by Bishop Robertson are eminently wise. There can be no question that the organization of a State board of charities in Missouri would result in a great improvement in the service of the unfortunate and would benefit the tax-payers. There was once such a board in this State; but it failed, because it devoted its attention rather to the cheapening of the service than to an increase in its efficiency. Whoever undertakes to administer public or private relief upon that basis

cannot succeed in charitable work any more than in other business, such as the management of a railroad or the publication of a newspaper. Efficiency first and economy afterward, should be our motto. Efficiency leads to economy, but to put economy first is destructive to efficiency.

Bishop ROBERTSON said that the governor of Missouri would urge upon the legislature, next winter, the importance of organizing a State board, and that he would be helped in such an effort by the action of this Conference and the reports made to it.

III.

Charity Organization.

OBJECTS OF CHARITY ORGANIZATION.

ADDRESS OF HON. CHARLES S. FAIRCHILD,

CHAIRMAN OF THE COMMITTEE ON CHARITY ORGANIZATION IN CITIES.

It is not necessary to report in detail upon charity organization, except to say that there are now in the United States about forty societies which may be classed under the head of charity organization, although all of them do not, perhaps, strictly conform to the generally accepted rules of such societies. In Canada there are also some societies of a like character.

Some weeks ago, I sent to each of these societies a circular containing questions, which, if answered generally and fully, will enable your committee to prepare a table that will give a comparative statement of this work in our country. This table will be the report of this committee. At present, I propose to state the general objects of a Charity Organization Society, as I understand them.

Such a society is for cities and large villages, and is designed to be a machine which shall attempt to overcome difficulties caused by the conditions of life in such places,—a machine to restore, in some degree, the natural relations of man to man. To gain this object is of more importance to us than to any people in the world, for we are peculiarly a nation of cities. I believe it to be a fact that, in proportion to population, more of our people live in cities than do any other people. These cities are business corporations, and are, as a rule, governed by the majority of the male citizens over twenty-one years of age living in them. It is important that these rulers should be good citizens, should be intelligent and self-respecting, should know the needs of these corporations and how the business intrusted to them should be done. Most persons will not, cannot, get this knowledge from print. In a small village, the man who has this knowledge

diffuses it insensibly among his fellows by daily contact. Every one knows him, and he knows every one; while in a city, he, comparatively, knows no one, and no one knows him in the same way as in the village.

The same may be said of the influence of lofty character and high purpose. He who has these qualities, if he lives in a community of one thousand people, can make them effective for good upon every one of the thousand. Place the same man in a city of five hundred thousand people, and he cannot influence in the same degree one hundred persons; and this not because the people in the city are naturally more vicious or less capable of learning than those in the village, but because the way in which people must live in a city makes this knowing of each other practically impossible. I throw out these ideas to suggest to your minds—as they do to mine, most forcibly—the importance of everything and anything which tends to overcome the unnatural relations toward each other of those who live in large communities. We all know that in great cities, if anywhere, our system of government has broken down. Here is the heel of our national Achilles. The thoughts suggested by what I have said contain a clew which explains to me why this is so.

It may be asked, What has all this which you have said to do with the business of your committee? Our committee has to do with charity in cities; and, when thought out, it will be found that there is hardly a relation or function in life which is not affected for good or for evil by the degree of perfection with which a true charity organization society does its work. Such a society is an artifice (imperfect, cumbersome, and costly, it is true) to restore the natural relations of men to their fellows, of which life in a city has robbed them. Those who belong to the society in any of its departments are supposed to be not only benevolent, but also to pledge themselves to study the science of charity and to govern their conduct by the knowledge gained; to pledge themselves to study the city in which they live, that they may come to know it, its resources and needs in all those respects which affect nearly or remotely the objects of the society. When these pledges are honestly kept, it will be found that every department of government and every condition of society are embraced within the range of study. The machinery of the society will enable its members to bring their knowledge to bear most effectively upon those persons and in those places where it is most needed; and not only their knowledge, but also the influence of their character and their benevolence. The society will, of course, first study the chari-

ties and charitable resources of its city, and will try to induce them to exchange information by means of registration; to economize time, labor, and money by united action, so that nothing shall be wasted by duplication of work, no harm done by unwholesome rivalry, nothing done only for the sake of doing, but that all shall act harmoniously, with the greatest economy of force, for that which should always be the one end of what we commonly call charity,—namely, the adequate relief of those who need relief. It will often, probably always, be found, after all the charities of a city have been studied, that something is still needed. The charity organization society, if wise, will not attempt to supply this need itself, but will study how this may best be done, and then find others to take up that particular work. When all this is done, after all this knowledge is gained, after all this machinery is set in motion, then what to my mind is the great work of the society ought to begin.

Then begins the effort to bring mind to bear upon mind, strong character and knowledge upon weakness and ignorance, kindness upon indifference, upon natures hardened by the belief that all the world was against them. This is the part of our visitors.

Your first and great difficulty will be with the well-to-do, the strong. Your work will now be to persuade them where not only their duty, but also their vital interest, calls them; namely, to bring themselves in every possible way in contact with that life which is away from them, in another part of their city. After the preliminary work is done, your effort should be to bring about this contact, this knowing of one another. One of our difficulties is to get the right to know the poor in a city (I call them the poor for lack of a better word); but when they are in trouble, when they become ill, when they seek alms, they have given us the right to know them, if we have never had it before. They have sought our acquaintance; and, if we are wise,—I do not say if we are simply benevolent,—but if we are wise and comprehend this subject to its bottom in this country of ours, we shall eagerly seize such opportunities, we shall take advantage of the machinery which a charity organization society offers, in order to secure that acquaintance.

The societies co-operating through the Charity Organization Society of New York City have reported about 48,000 cases, representing nearly 200,000 individuals. Suppose that our society could induce, say, 5,000 wise and benevolent men and women to become acquainted with those 48,000 families, not to give them alms, not to build hospitals for them, but only to try to make them friends, and so give to

them insensibly something which they, perhaps, need in character, in courage, in honor, in religion. What a result might be produced, not only upon the 48,000 families, but also upon their friends and neighbors! You will perceive that I, at least, think that the subject of charity organization is worthy of the earnest consideration of not only those persons commonly called charitable and benevolent, but also of all who are patriotic and wish to do what they can for the future of our country. The Church can do most, if it will. If all churches would act together in this work and would honestly, earnestly support charity organization, it is hardly possible to imagine how much good might ensue. But I think it is the experience of every charity organization society that it is more difficult to get the active sympathy and co-operation of churches than of any other bodies. And yet charity organization perfectly carried out would produce a state of society nearer the Christian ideal than has ever yet been known. I believe that, in neglecting this subject, churches miss their best chance to advance the objects to which they are consecrated. Perfect charity organization would almost make real true communism, which is not equal division of property. That can never be: there will always be the rich and the richer, the poor and the poorer.

Charity organization would divide enough property for adequate relief: more would not be relief at all. Charity organization would divide and diffuse character, knowledge, experience, and benevolence. We can divide and give away all that we have of these, and do no harm; while, in dividing, we but increase them. After giving all, we have more to give than before we gave; and yet we have given the means to gain happiness, wealth, friends, high station, honor, all that makes life worth living. We have done our best to create a true commune.

This is the Utopia of charity organization, but it will do us no harm to dream of it now and then.

VOLUNTEER VISITING :

THE ORGANIZATION NECESSARY TO MAKE IT EFFECTIVE.

BY ZILPHA D. SMITH,

REGISTRAR OF THE BOSTON ASSOCIATED CHARITIES.

Before describing the committees that stand directly behind the work of the friendly visitors of the Associated Charities in Boston, I will state briefly the character of our society and some of the conditions surrounding its work.

The Charities of Boston are associated for two purposes : —

First, to exchange information privately between charities interested in the same family, through the records and written reports of the central office ; and

Second, to secure personal consultations on general subjects and about particular families.

The records of the central office for the last year concerned nearly 11,000 families.

At the general conferences for the discussion of broad questions, there is usually a fair representation from the various charities of the city ; but, as few charities divide their work by districts, it is impossible for those working throughout the city to be represented at each of the fourteen district conference meetings which are held each week. Consultations between the charities about individual families, therefore, must usually be brought about by our visitors or agents, who go from one person to another of those interested in a family, until we are possessed of full knowledge concerning it, and can act upon the advice received or give advice in our turn.

We are not a relief society. Under our by-laws, we can hold no fund for relief ; and we believe that in Boston our society is better off without one. We are on the best of terms with almost all the relief-giving societies and agencies, and the number of those co-operating with us has increased constantly.

We now have over 600 volunteer visitors, who visit about 1,400 families. As a rule, these volunteers are not almsgivers. The conferences and the visitors possess various degrees of efficiency, but many of them are very successful. Were the visitors left to them-

selves, a large proportion of their work would be weak and fruitless, and perhaps given up entirely. It is of the organization of our district conferences, which strengthen and encourage the work of friendly visitors, that I wish especially to speak.

When we began, five years since, each conference was allowed to work its own way out, under the general plan of hearing reports of visitors at the conference meetings, and acting upon them there. As the number of families in our care increased, it was found that all the visitors could not be heard, and that each family needed more study than could be given in a conference meeting. Various plans were tried; and the one I now describe, proving the most successful, has been adopted by nearly all our larger conferences, and by smaller ones also, except that the work of the case committee is by them included in that of the executive committee.

The executive committee elected by the conference is composed of the most experienced visitors and persons having special administrative ability, and the leisure to use it in this service.

The agent, also, should be one able to guide and inspire others, ready to step in and help when necessary in what is properly visitors' work, but sufficiently patient with the imperfections and delays of volunteers not to usurp the visitor's place.

The paid agent, always to be found at certain hours and giving all his time, naturally becomes the centre of the district work, receiving from both visitors and committee information and advice, to be transmitted from one to the other. His opinion is always important; but we think it a great misfortune when a committee falls into the habit of leaving decisions to its agent, or the agent neglects to use or urge volunteer work, because for the moment it is easier to do the thing needed himself. No one person can bring to such varied wants the resources of many volunteers; and responsibility must be placed upon these volunteers, to gain and keep their interest.

When a family is referred to our society for investigation and friendly visiting, any information already recorded at the central office about it is sent to the district office. To this is added the visit of the agent to the home and the results of outside inquiries, so that the committee has before it all the available knowledge necessary to decide present action, and to choose the visitor needed to form a permanent and helpful friendship with the family.

Visitors are secured chiefly by the personal efforts of those already engaged in the work. A few come in response to appeals at public meetings and in the newspapers.

It is the duty of the committee and its agent to secure frequent reports from the visitors in its district and to make suggestions from their larger experience. To get frequent reports may sound like "red tape," but the strictest system can be administered in a friendly way. The agent or secretary does not write a note of this sort:—

"*Dear Miss White*,—Your report about Mary and John Brown is due to-morrow."

But rather a note like this:—

"*Dear Miss White*,—How are the Browns getting on? I met Mary on her way to school yesterday, looking much brighter and cleaner than when we first knew her. This morning, Mrs. Lucas, one of our visitors, told me of a place for a boy that seemed easy enough for lame Johnnie; and I hope you can come to the conference to-morrow, and consult with Mrs. Lucas about it."

Always at first, and sometimes for years, visitors need to report about their charges weekly or fortnightly. When the circumstances become thoroughly known, are not likely to change, and the visitor proves himself competent to carry out the course of action determined upon, the committee decides to ask for reports once a month only,—once in two, three, or six months, or sometimes once a year. This decision, systematically recorded and used by the committee and agent, is usually made known to the visitor only by the growing infrequency of notes from the agent,—a natural change. Thus, at every turn, we try to make our system so perfect that our work will be thorough and go smoothly forward; but we do not allow the system to hide the personal, friendly interest between the committee and the visitor, the visitor and the poor family.

For instance, a visitor is asked, "now that the Browns are doing so well," if she will not interest herself in poor, lame Miss Black, who does excellent laundry-work, but ought to be in a better neighborhood, and to have work found for her, since she cannot easily go about herself.

This means that the committee decided to ask a report about the Browns only once in three months, and to persuade the visitor to take another case.

New cases and the reports of visitors, either in writing or received verbally through the agent, are presented to the case committee, who considers each one of them, notes suggestions to be made or questions to be asked, and arranges them in the order of their importance for the meeting of the executive committee next day. To the case committee are also reported the names of visitors whose reports are

due, but not received. The case committee is composed of the two or three members of the executive who can give most time to the work; or one member is changed at intervals of a few months, so that all the executive committee can gain experience in analyzing cases. There is danger that the decisions may fall into a few hands, — a bad policy in the long run, because, when experienced workers drop out, no one is prepared to take their places. It seems to be better that the chairman of the executive committee, whose duty it is to draw out the thought of every member, should not be one of the case committee, since it is difficult to preside well over one committee while reporting for another.

In the executive committee, the suggestions of the case committee serve the same purpose as motions before a legislative body, and, whether wise or not, lead to a better and quicker solution of the question. If there is not time for all, the arrangement of reports secures decisions on the more important ones, and the suggestions of the case committee are treated as decisions on the others.

In the conference meeting itself, where the visitors and other charitable workers are present, the executive committee brings up any cases where a principle new to the conference has to be decided, reports of successes to encourage other visitors, or questions that the committee found difficult. This plan takes from the conference meeting so much detail that there is time to discuss these cases fully, to hear visitors who prefer to report in the open meeting, and to consider general questions.

In some conferences, the executive committee meeting directly follows that of the case committee, or the conference follows the executive committee, but always there is a break in the three meetings, — an important break, because it gives opportunity for thought at home, which brings into the next meeting fresh suggestions.

The adoption of this plan has never failed to improve the efficiency of the conference; and, when faithfully carried out by efficient workers, it enables even inexperienced visitors to do good service, and increases the confidence of both the visitors and the co-operating societies in the work of the conference.

ALMSGIVING SOCIETIES.

BY L. S. EMERY,

SECRETARY ASSOCIATED CHARITIES, WASHINGTON.

The questions of pauperism and crime in the District of Columbia, as elsewhere, have been difficult questions to solve. Kind and affectionate parents, who dislike to have their sons and daughters pressed into mental or manual activity beyond their own inclinations, especially if there is an appearance of their doing so to secure a livelihood, often — unconsciously, it may be — create an impression that labor is humiliating. Such parents are preparing their children for a condition of dependence and pauperism; and sooner or later, in the ordinary course of events, they will either knock at the doors for charity or be tempted, in desperation, to secure a berth behind the prison bars. This cause of poverty is not infrequently found in localities where manual labor has not been so popular as in other places; and, in the eighteen years of constant and active work among the poor of Washington, I have been seriously impressed with the magnitude of this class of cases.

For many years there existed a peculiar necessity for special effort to prevent suffering among the poor of Washington. In 1866, the Provident Aid Society first dispensed alms to those in apparent need, without any positive motive other than to relieve immediate want. It established soup-houses; and long lines of men and women came daily, with wonderful regularity, for a bucket of soup, every day adding new clogs to whatever sensibilities of manhood remained. Year after year, food and fuel were dispensed so indiscriminately as to educate to imposture, to demoralize, and to fill the District of Columbia with an unprofitable and dangerous element. The Provident Aid Society, overwhelmed with applications for aid and conscious of a necessity for a change, closed its work.

Then followed the county and city boards of trustees; and, for six years, these two agencies disbursed the public funds by almsgiving exclusively, with the most undeserving, as usual, to the front for aid. In the county there was an alphabetical registry commenced, but it did not extend into the city; and it was found that begging continued to increase. During the last year of its work, about thirty thousand dollars was expended for what is termed out-door relief of the poor; and it was during that year that a plan to apply the labor test was

conceived, and the Washington Labor Exchange was organized in 1877, with the following declaration:—

“Recognizing the wisdom and true charity of helping the poor and unemployed to help themselves, the people of the District of Columbia have organized the Washington Labor Exchange. . . . It is our earnest purpose to discourage indiscriminate almsgiving, and to prevent, in a measure, the pauperism which forms so painful a feature in our community.”

It was the beginning of a new era; and, during the first year of its existence, 4,228 persons made application for employment, and employment was found for 1,250. The influences of the Labor Exchange were good. It formulated a declaration of principles which formed the basis for future action. It gave no alms, and finally became little more than an intelligence office without a systematic record; and it closed its work. It was succeeded by another organization for almsgiving exclusively; and the old, familiar faces came again for their share. This organization continued about two years, and matters grew worse instead of better.

In the light of about fifteen years' experience and with a sense of the necessity for co-operation, the Associated Charities was organized. Its object was to dispense charity on a prudent, discriminating, economic, and systematic plan,—a plan which should keep the man who is about to fall from falling, lift a man up gently when he has fallen; advise, investigate, stimulate to nobler ambition by awakening a sense of self-respect, a pride in self-support and responsibility; keep an accurate registry, and institute a system of prompt and intelligent relief, without offending or wounding the most delicate sensibilities by exposure or harshness. It became incorporated early in 1882, and immediately established a central office, distributed fifteen thousand circulars setting forth its plans and purposes, divided the district into eighteen subdivisions of convenient size, fourteen of which organized, selected, and arranged the work of their visitors, raised their own funds as far as possible, kept a systematic registry of particulars, and reported to the central office in detail, where a ledger of particulars of the whole city was kept.

The central board of managers consists of fifteen elected members and a delegate from each subdivision, or co-operating organization. This central board meets monthly, makes rules for its own action, and, so far as it is necessary to effect uniformity, makes rules governing the action of the subdivisions.

In a few months, quite an accurate record and history of the poor and of impostors had been alphabetically arranged at the central office; and the citizens began sending to it their applicants, and the army of beggars began to disappear.

The work of reform had commenced. No more indiscriminate almsgiving was countenanced. A scrutinizing investigation was made, and a careful, confidential record was kept. The plan was to clear away the professional beggars and impostors from the front, so that the real, quiet suffering could be found, and receive proper attention; that all might be helped to help themselves in the truest possible sense, by finding or furnishing employment for such as could work, by furnishing or obtaining transportation for others to friends, or to some place where they could support themselves, by advice and friendly encouragement, by an occasional loan to keep a family sheltered, by reference to associations, churches, and employers of labor, by instructions in the arts that are conducive to self-support, and giving alms only as a last resort or when stubborn necessity should demand.

By careful and persistent efforts and with the co-operation of the citizens, associations, the authorities of the district, and some of the churches, we are now able to present, as the results of our systematic efforts, not a perfect condition, but a condition of reform of which every citizen who has an interest in our nation's capital may justly be proud. We have a city practically rid of its street and door-to-door beggars; and impostors and professionals, who stood in the way of innocent sufferers, have been unmasked and dislodged. The homes of the quiet and innocent suffering poor are now visited, relief is administered intelligently and helpfully. A school for instruction of girls in housework, a sewing class, a free kindergarten, a cooking class, and a wood-yard are established and maintained at the central office; and several industrial schools, kindergartens, and nurseries are maintained by the subdivisions.

The results, while they may not be all that we might wish, are exceedingly gratifying. We discover no injurious effects from the alms we give, but rather an evidence of gratitude, appreciation, and recognition of the fact that a friend has been found, and new and invigorating hopes and courage are restored. But the relief given must be administered with discretion and thoughtfulness and accompanied by words of caution, followed up by a kindly assurance that it is self-support that must be sought, and that whatever aid is now bestowed is but to guide them into the channels of employment. I

believe the system can be maintained, that co-operation is and will be increased, and that out-door relief will be under wholesome restraint and control.

Manual labor must be dignified, so that the mechanics toiling at the bench or at the forge, and the farmers in tilling the soil, shall feel as proud of the labor of their hands as they that are called to the professions in life; and they that toil honestly for their daily bread shall not feel humiliated or proscribed on that account, or inferior to those whose fortunes permit them to live in luxury and ease. If we would keep our sons and daughters pure and prosperous, we must inculcate the true principles of honest industry and economy, as well as honor the calling whereunto they are called. And, as much pauperism and crime arise from intemperance, it behooves us to make our investigations broad and deep, and to act wisely in applying the remedies for each.

In rendering relief, it should be that which will elevate and not depress, that which will inspire courage and resolute action, economy in the affairs of life, temperance in all things, and the acquirement of some practical knowledge of work whereby a livelihood may be earned. Then we shall have done much toward helping our fellow-men to help themselves, and toward the suppression of the great evils of the hour. Conventions may be held, resolutions may be passed with all their glittering generalities; but the great burden of relief and reform must be borne by our practical efforts with our co-laborers at our respective places of abode, after we go hence, with the inspiration of this Conference upon us.

RELIEF WORK.

THE DANGERS ATTENDING ALMSGIVING BY CHARITY ORGANIZATION SOCIETIES.

BY W. ALEX. JOHNSON,

GENERAL SECRETARY OF THE ASSOCIATED CHARITIES, CINCINNATI.

Most of the papers read before this National Conference, at its annual sessions, on the subject of charity organization in cities, have been addressed rather to the general public than to those actually engaged in the work. The paper which I have prepared at the request of our chairman is, however, addressed to actual workers.

The subject which has been suggested to me is "the dangers which attend upon making the actual bestowing of alms a leading feature of a charity organization society." I accept this subject with the more confidence, because the society which I represent, and whose chief executive officer I am, has encountered, in the course of its five years of work, many of these dangers, and not always successfully.

I will begin by assuming two cardinal principles, which are so generally accepted among systematic thinkers on matters pertaining to almsgiving as to need no argument from me for their defence.

1. That almsgiving is *per se* injurious to the recipient, and must be accompanied and followed by some treatment as an antidote.
2. That public out-door relief dispensed by a paid officer from a fund raised by taxation is generally evil, and should be as far as possible replaced, where alms are necessary, by the work of private charity.

Another principle which I will take for granted and not defend, unless it is questioned, is that the only possible redemption of almsgiving is when it is made the outward and visible sign of an inward and spiritual grace,—the Christian (*i.e.*, in the highest sense, the humanitarian) grace of charity in the giver; to be followed in the recipient by those corresponding graces of gratitude, humility, and hope.

To assist destitute or forlorn persons coming under the notice of our societies in the very best possible manner requires patient and thoughtful care and effort. Each case—that is to say, each family—is a problem, and must be studied by itself; and the different methods by which the same end of self-help can be attained in different cases are innumerable.

To give material relief to a destitute family, relief that shall bridge them over their difficulties for a day or two, or a week or two, or even through the whole winter, and then leave them as poor as they were or a little poorer, because more dependent, is very easy, and requires little thought or care. In our society, it is done by writing one, or a series, of grocery orders.

Here is the temptation to an overworked official or a perplexed committee on decision to take the ready way,—very often with the intention of considering the case in the slower, better, and permanent way at their next session. But, too often, the easy way of almsgiving is repeated again and again. Meanwhile, the habit of pauperism, the habit of reaping where they have not sown, of getting something by the exertions of another, grows, and becomes ever harder to cure; and the true work of the society, the work of elevating the pauper into a citizen, is not accomplished.

I acknowledge, however, that there are many cases wherein material relief, regular and permanent, is an absolute necessity; is, in fact, the wisest and best form of help. Some one must provide this relief, and it is strongly urged that the investigator should be the almsgiver in such cases.

My third assumed principle would prevent this being done; and, besides, the value of cases that can be wisely aided in this way is incalculable. It furnishes a channel into which to divert the streams of beneficence of good people, whose kind hearts and real charity need some such channel as a relief to their emotions. But the danger to the society lies here: The practical effect of the method is to convert our district agent into an official dispenser of out-door relief, and all the evils that it is understood are always ready to attend on that method of almsgiving begin to gather around our society. Applicants come for their "rights." They insist that their claim is as good as that of their neighbor who has been assisted. It becomes more and more difficult to divide the sheep from the goats, the worthy poor from the degraded, vicious pauper. This is the effect on the applicants. On the agent, also, the effect is vicious. He becomes more and more mechanical,—a sure mark of diminution of usefulness in our work, whatever it may be in a maker of machines. His investigations relax their stringency, and his registration is therefore less useful. The district committee, also, is in the same danger of mechanical work; and the reports sent in to the central office soon show, to the trained eye, a lack of brain-work.

On the volunteer visitors, the effect of these mechanical methods is

very discouraging. Feeling little personal responsibility and going among persons who are receiving enough relief to discourage any active exertion toward self-help, they are not compelled to exert themselves to advise, suggest, contrive. The members of the decision committee, being called on only to decide whether a few poor Irish or German washerwomen out of work are to have seventy-five cents or a dollar per week, very soon stay away from the meeting; and the district association becomes an out-door relief society, with a paid agent.

These are not exaggerated fancies. They are bald facts with respect to certain district societies. I am happy to say they are very extreme cases, but it is owing to the personal devotion and watchfulness of a few energetic lovers of their kind that this state of things does not oftener prevail in societies that give alms directly. I admit that such a condition exists, along with grave omissions on other points; that the system has lacked centralization, that the district societies have not had the intelligent direction from the central council which they had a right to expect; but I am very hopeful that, when these omissions are remedied, we may overcome most of the evils which I have recited. Indeed, if it were not so, I should despair of our society altogether. The relief is too thoroughly a part of our work to be abandoned now. We are, and I have little doubt shall continue to be, a relief-giving society, as well as an association of charities; but we may hope to get back to our first principles, and make relief-giving our last resort.

I speak the more feelingly of the effects of relief, because I was actively engaged last February in a most responsible position, in what was, I suppose, about as large a piece of relief work as a city has undertaken since the Chicago fire. I was more or less responsible for the distribution of food, bedding, clothing, and shelter to 34,000 people for several weeks; and afterwards for some extensive relief work in the way of repairing, replacing, and rebuilding houses. The demoralization occasioned by this vast relief has left a lingering train of newly made paupers, that seemed at one time destined to entirely swamp several of the districts in which the relief had been the most profuse.

We must organize our societies, to be successful, on a basis commensurate with the capacity of the workers whose services we can secure. We cannot fill our committees with angels, neither cherubim of wisdom nor seraphim of love: we must be content with fallible men and women.

Let us not make the worse way the easy way. Let us set our faces firmly and finally against the system of relief by doles of money, of food, of coal.

CO-OPERATION OF THE CHURCHES.

BY REV. C. R. HENDERSON,

DETROIT, MICH.

I. What is the function of the Association of Charities in the social organism? The work of the association is not yet defined with absolute precision. We are seeking a definition. The sphere of our work is wider in some places than in others. By many minds, our society is vaguely thought of as only one more relief society of the ancient type, one more set of people who are hungry to give away the money of other people. We are partly to blame for this confusion, because, in some places, we accept the task of distributing alms; and we are not always certain that we do it better than others.

Yet, aside from relief work, a few principles are clearly defined and generally accepted. We aim to do for the benevolent instincts of men, through information, argument, and counsel, what various European governments do by police force. Our methods are adjusted to the characteristics of a free people, who insist on giving, as they do other things, without governmental intrusion. (1) The association forms and maintains a system of registration of all applicants for relief in the city. It is evident that no individual, no church, and no relief society, which occupies only part of a city, can inquire into all cases with such accuracy as a society which acts for all. (2) These records are the source of information to those who wish to do good, and do not wish to be duped or to give at random. Only those who are interested in a family can get this knowledge, for the records are not publicly spread open for chance comers and merely curious eyes. (3) Our free employment bureau is a reliable agency for communication between those who need to do work and those who need work done. (4) We bring into personal and friendly contact those whom social position, our system of out-door official relief, and other causes have separated. (5) We seek, by publications and conferences, to bring to our whole community the results of the experience and scientific study of the world's best workers. These aims are characteristic of charity organizations, whatever be their name.

II. What is the charity function of the Church? By the word "Church," I mean, in this place, all organizations having religious

aims,—Protestant and Catholic and Jewish. If religion means love to God and to man, then it is the mission of the church to do good to all men,—to body, mind, and immortal spirit. The parable of the Good Samaritan forbids us to confine our gifts to the poor of our own communion. A church that gives nothing and does nothing for "outsiders" ought to die, and it is likely to do so. The fact is that most of those who seek relief in cities never go to church; and, when they begin to go, they cease to be paupers, and become self-respecting, tidy, sober, industrious, hopeful. And so it comes about that the church is compelled to go outside for fresh material.

The desire of churches to give relief is a vast social fact. Some may regret it, and some may even long for police interference. Meantime, the churches go on giving, and not always wisely. The instinct is right, the impulse is mighty. The force is augmented by a thousand tribute strains of song, sermon, and prayer, in cathedral, chapel, and log school-house. The humanitarian affection is expressed in crude address and elaborate ritual, and the river broadens and deepens as it flows. They who sing and pray together will give together. It is idle to argue against this social tendency, better to direct it into useful channels.

III. The relations between churches and association are mutually friendly and helpful.

1. The association offers to aid the churches to make their benevolence beneficent. The churches are exposed to the tricks of impostors. Pastors have no way of knowing what other pastors are doing. Deception grows by being rewarded through duplicate giving. The records of the association, if used, will protect almoners of church bounty from fraud.

But where there is no desire to deceive, as in the case of many worthy poor outside the churches, who is to bring the obscure and forgotten to the attention of the prosperous and progressive? The churches do not know where these dependants dwell, and are not certain that all are sufficiently aided. But the association has a complete record of all who appeal to the public for aid. It calls for visitors to go to the homes of the needy; and these visitors, though for good reasons excluded from proselyting, can send the person visited to pastor, missionary, or Bible reader, for the highest consolation and inspiration.

It is sometimes objected to our association that it is irreligious,—that it prevents giving the poor those highest blessings which the soul craves. This is not true. We leave that work to the churches, where

it belongs. Most bitterly would they soon cry out against us, if we assumed their work, and justly. But our work does not hinder, it promotes the church work. And the church is aided by our bureau of publication and information, the pulpit is "tuned" to express the emotion of benevolence according to the laws of common sense and social science.

2. The church can aid the association. It cannot and ought not to publish the names of its own families whom it aids, unless there is reason to apprehend deception. But it can refuse to take up unknown parties without asking information from the records. It can refuse to play the proud patron at the cost of the freedom and manhood of the poor throughout generations. It can insist with us on the abolition of public, official, out-door relief, and the substitution of personal and true charity in the place of misnamed charity by assessment. It can promote provident schemes in connection with its chapels and missions, as fuel savings, co-operation in buying food, fuel, and clothing. It can give us the names of suitable friendly visitors. And, when that good day comes when out-door State relief is utterly abolished, the churches will, being disburdened from taxation for the poor and being already organized for such work, furnish us the treasures to which most cases of actual and helpless destitution may be referred.

IV. From the stand-point of the association, what can we do to secure the co-operation of the churches? We can deal fairly with the religious bodies, recognizing the real good they are accomplishing. We must exercise patience, remembering the power of habit and tradition. Churches are sent to "save," and are, naturally, properly conservative. The word "charity" connotes the old method as well as the old love. It is associated with doles and indiscriminate giving. We criticise the method which is tangled with the aim in the minds of good people, and we must expect to be long misunderstood. We need patience. We must show fruits of our method. Columbus himself had more right to be believed in relation to his theory of the world's convexity after his voyage to America than before. Schiller praises him:—

"On, still on to the West: 'tis there the coast will first greet thee;
For to thy Reason it lies clear and distinct even now.
Trust to the guiding God, and follow the world's silent ocean;
For, though as yet never seen, lo! it ascends from the flood.
With the intellect, nature standeth in union eternal;
And what is promised by one, that will the other fulfil."

The association has a true principle, a right theory. But our discoveries must confirm it. When we report dependent families lifted out of pauperism, children saved from vicious environment, beggars become honest and self-supporting, tramps made to earn their bread before they eat it, friendly and co-operative societies increasing in membership, the poor buying coal as cheap as the rich, the cringing suppliant changed to become erect and walking with dignity from shop to home, barefoot children saved from street begging and sent to school and church, impostors detected and exposed, and charitable people shown just where and how they may give their love and money with best results, then the church will give us its confidence. The burden of proof rests on the association. We ask church members for money. We must prove our reason for existence.

To secure the co-operation of church members, we must give them something to do. They must be appointed visitors; and, as co-workers, they will soon be advocates of our methods and defend our system. Much depends on the secretaries and chairmen of district committees.

Union conferences are useful to explain our methods to church workers. In such conferences, objections can be met and answered, criticisms fairly weighed; and there we can reiterate our claim to be, not the rival or competitor of existing charities, but the ally and friend of all.

IV.

Reformatories and Houses of Refuge.

REPORT OF HON. A. E. ELMORE,

CHAIRMAN OF COMMITTEE ON THE ORGANIZATION AND MANAGEMENT OF REFORMATORIES AND HOUSES OF REFUGE.

On the 22d of May, I prepared a list of questions, twelve in number, which, together with a letter requesting a brief answer, was sent to each member of the committee; and also a letter suggesting that each member should prepare a ten-minutes paper on the special branch of the subject which he thought most important. Copies of the first letter, with the questions, were also sent to a number of persons in different States, who were supposed to be interested in their subject-matter. Eleven of the twenty-three members of the committee, and seven others, answered the questions; and two of the committee furnished, in addition, the ten-minutes paper suggested.

How to govern children has been a great problem from the beginning. In reformatories, the true relation is that of parent and child. In the best of families, with the best training and kindest treatment, how many turn out badly! And yet nearly every man and woman we meet knows exactly how it should be done; and those who know best, as themselves admit, are those who have had very little or no experience.

The following are the questions that were asked, and the substance of the answers elicited:—

1. *Do you prefer the cottage or congregate plan?*—A general preference was expressed for the cottage plan of constructing the buildings, and the family system of management or some modification thereof. No one favored the congregate system. Four favored a combination of both,—a large, central building with detached cottages for the better class of inmates. Twelve favored the cottage plan, and two expressed no preference.

2. *Should the same institution receive both sexes?*—Twelve favored

separate institutions for each sex; five would allow both in the same institution, but in absolutely separate apartments; and one favored having both sexes in the same institution, and did not qualify this choice by further remark.

3. *Should vagrant and homeless children not convicted of crime be sent to such institutions?* — Ten favored, six opposed, and two were indifferent.

4. *What is the lowest age at which children should be committed?* — Opinions varied very much, — from six to twelve; a plurality favoring ten years.

5. *What should be the highest age?* — A plurality favored sixteen, but others said from fourteen to eighteen.

6. *What is the highest age to which they should be retained?* — A large majority favored twenty-one years, but most of them with qualifications.

7. *Under any circumstances should their labor be let by contract?* — To this question, the response was practically unanimous in the negative. The only replies favoring it were two from superintendents of institutions where they have such labor, and they gave it support only when closely restricted and watched.

8. *Is it feasible to teach them trades?* — Eleven gave affirmative, six negative, replies, — most of them with qualifications; and one was undecided.

9. *Should their education go beyond the common school branches?* — Twelve said no, three aye; and three were on the affirmative side of the question, with many qualifications.

10. *Should they be graded on some system of marks or credits?* — One only was opposed to the system of grading by marks. A number expressed themselves as opposed to a too rigid and technical carrying out of the system, and a great diversity of views as to the particular manner of applying such grades was entertained. The one opposed to the system is not an officer or trustee of a reformatory.

11. *Should such marks be upon conduct, studies, or industries, or all of them?* — Nearly all favored basing them on the combination of conduct, studies, and industries, though upon conduct more particularly.

12. *Should corporal punishment be inflicted?* — Three were opposed to corporal punishment, while fifteen were in favor, but under great limitations and restrictions, most of them reserving that power to the superintendent exclusively or by his direction; and others would doubtless have so expressed themselves, had the question submitted suggested other than the shortest reply.

These answers were from representative persons, fairly expressing the opinions and practice of the juvenile reformatories of the United States; and the following may be formulated as a brief statement thereof. They favor the cottage system of construction and some modification of the family plan of management; a complete separation of the sexes,—in separate institutions, if possible. Childhood is the time, between nine and sixteen, for sending inmates to these institutions; and great discretion and latitude are to be used as to the length of time they are to be retained, the maximum being until their legal majority. On the question of placing vagrant and incorrigible children in reformatories with children convicted of crime, the opinions are nearly divided, a bare majority in favor.

The contract system of labor in reformatories is condemned emphatically. The feasibility of teaching trades is by many doubted. Its desirability is very general. If the State or municipality gives each inmate of a reformatory a good common-school education, it has done, in that respect, its whole duty: such is the opinion of nearly all who responded to the question. A system of marks or credits for conduct, studies, and industry, is favored; and the infliction of corporal punishment in *extreme cases* approved, but under such safeguards as will render its abuse improbable, if not impossible.

We believe that what is sown will be reaped. Wrong and outrage produce their like, as do kindness and confidence. Vice should be punished, and virtue commended. Justice may say to an offender to-day, and very properly, Go, and sin no more; while to-morrow mercy may, in its highest exercise, rightly administered, inflict corporal punishment for another and different violation of law. The same rigid rule cannot apply to all.

Erect your buildings on your best plan; work hard to have them completed and furnished exactly right; get a wise superintendent and like officers, with employes of more than ordinary intelligence; and, after all that, if they sought the positions and employment solely for the pay, if they have not at heart the good of the inmates, but, as is too often the case, perform as little labor as possible, and get the most money they can for it,—your institution will be a failure.

On the other hand, with buildings small or large, cottage or congregate; with superintendent, officers, and employes selected, not for their ability to do a certain amount of work well and quickly, but because they love justice and right, and have the firmness to administer them in a proper manner,—if they have the welfare of those under their care dear to their hearts, it will be a success.

THE MANAGEMENT OF REFORMATORIES.

BY P. H. LAVERTY,

PRINCIPAL KEEPER NEW JERSEY STATE PRISON.

The care of the criminal classes is the study of a lifetime. My experience dates back many years; and, even at this late day, I consider myself deficient in many points essential to their proper care.

While sheriff of Hudson County, the largest and most populous county in New Jersey, my opportunities for studying the different phases of crime, more especially the first steps in a career of crime, were many. The county jails of New Jersey, with the exception of those situated in the largest counties, are under the supervision of the sheriffs of the different counties, who act in conjunction with a committee of the Board of Freeholders, who have power to make any changes, improvements, repairs, etc. It is to this committee that we must look for any important changes in the present system of caring for or keeping the criminals consigned to those jails.

The first and most important matter to be considered is cleanliness, then light and well-ventilated apartments. It is a grave mistake to suppose for a moment that any improvement can be made in depraved humanity by herding men together, like sheep in a corral. Cleanliness can be obtained, although it necessarily requires a little extra exertion and trouble. But, once obtained, there is little difficulty in exacting a standard and always keeping up to it thereafter. To have light and well-ventilated apartments requires the assistance of the building committee.

The present arrangements of allowing inmates of jails to associate unrestrainedly, without regard to age, sex, or class, is demoralizing in the extreme. Separate apartments should be provided for women and children. Strict discipline should always be enforced. Three or six months of solitary confinement behind grated doors would destroy the social charm that the jail now possesses for the youthful criminal. I have seen from one to two hundred men and boys, ranging from ten to sixty years of age, allowed to spend the entire day outside of their cells, ostensibly for exercise, but virtually to enjoy themselves as they saw fit: card-playing, telling obscene stories, learning and singing ribald songs, unrestricted intercourse of old men steeped in vice and crime with youth taking their first lessons in a life of vice and sin.

Where does the remedy lie? In a separation of these criminals. Confine them to their cells. Permit them to exercise, but under restraint. Teach them that criminal life is not a pleasant one. Separate the old criminals from the young. Throw every influence possible around the young, to induce them to become honorable and useful members of society.

Another means whereby we can make criminals abhor the jails is to provide some means of employment for our jail population. Nothing is so repulsive to a person with criminal tendency as work. This is especially recommended in the treatment of tramps, vagabonds, and "toughs." These classes certainly despise honest toil. They often commit petty crimes for the sole purpose of being imprisoned for short terms, mostly during the winter months. They can be most easily cured by this method.

From the jail, the next step is either the reform school or penitentiary. To the first-mentioned place are sent those perverse young men and boys who failed to profit by the warnings given them in their committals to the jail; and it is deemed necessary to place them out of the way of their former associates, with the hope that the beneficial influence exerted over them at the reformatories will cause them to appreciate the errors they have committed and to determine to lead a new life, when released.

What is the result of life in a reformatory? The graduates of these institutions come out with some good points,—among them, obedience. They appear to have been impressed with the teaching that this qualification is essential to every man, no matter what his origin or where he is led to in life. Nine-tenths are able to read and write, and can do very excellent work in this branch of education. Their religious training is attended to; they are taught that there is a God, and that his commandments should be obeyed.

Then, what reason is there for any person to speak disparagingly of these reformatories? In answer to this inquiry, permit me to relate my personal experience. In my capacity of sheriff, I have handled boys whom I have known from infancy. Through some slight infringement of the law, they were incarcerated in jail. After a residence there of several days, during which time they sipped heavy draughts from the cup of "happiness" which I have described as surrounding the jails, they were released. They looked up their companions, and regaled them with the "wit and wisdom" they learned during their short sojourn in the jail, and presently became the hero of a large aggregation of boys; and, because of the distinc-

tion of having been in the "lock-up," they led the "gang" in any mischief upon which they were bent. Within a short time, they were again in jail. As sheriff, I took many such boys to the Reform School. On my assuming charge of the New Jersey State prison, I was astonished, while personally interviewing the convicts, to find so many who were acquainted with me. I made note of the number of New Jersey Reform School boys who are now sojourning at the New Jersey State prison, and I find that there are seventeen boys, to my knowledge, whom I, as sheriff, conveyed, by direction of the courts of Hudson County, to the Reform School at Jamesburg.

The total number of former inmates of the New Jersey Reform School now serving their time in the New Jersey State prison is sixty-three; formerly in the House of Refuge, Philadelphia, eleven; formerly at the Elmira Reformatory, five; formerly in Baltimore Industrial School, two; formerly on Randall's Island House of Correction, New York, two; and three from other reformatories. This is a total of eighty-six from correctional institutions. The population of the prison where this record was correctly computed was 828. Now, when we consider that the percentage of convict graduates of the reformatories is more than ten per cent. of the entire population of a prison, we are forced to admit that there is something radically wrong about the system.

Then shall we advocate the abolition of reformatories? No: conduct them on a different principle. Instead of treating the inmates as inhabitants of a charitable institution, compel them to observe rules established on the basis of a penal institution. With vigorous treatment, they are more apt to learn the benefits that will accrue from following the path of rectitude; and the experience that will be theirs, should they continue in their downward career, will be similar to that which they there endure.

The average number in the New Jersey State Reform School is 350. The great proclivity of a novice is to learn bad traits from a more experienced rascal with whom he may be thrown in contact. This is not the only reason for the boys released from the reformatories becoming professional criminals. The grasping tendency of the authorities to run institutions with as little cost as possible to the taxpayer; their endeavor to make them self-sustaining, because it is popular so to do,—on account of these reasons, superintendents with the best intentions permit themselves to fall into this error instead of conducting their institutions with the purpose of teaching the inmates a trade by which they can earn their livelihood.

The consciousness of a discharged man that he has acquired a trade is of immense benefit in assisting him to lead an honest life. I believe this is the key-note to true reformation. A man with a trade has some confidence in himself, and naturally looks for employment in that branch of industry, and can generally obtain it. I am sorry to say that the spirit of the boys of the present generation has greatly deteriorated as concerns the ambition to acquire some mechanical pursuit. I know that good work is done by some reformatories, but I insist that the realization is not what it should be.

The penitentiaries in New Jersey are county institutions, situated in the two largest cities, Newark and Jersey City. They are run on precisely the same principle as the State prison as regards discipline. The two penitentiaries have a population of nearly 650. I have only 103 who have been in either of the penitentiaries, which proves to me that the effect as regards reform is greater in the penitentiary than in the Reform School. Calculating the present population of the two places, we find a fraction over one-sixth from the penitentiaries and a fraction over one-fourth from the Reform School population now in New Jersey prisons.

It is generally conceded that, when a man is sent to State prison, he is irretrievably bad, that he has been tried and given the option of reforming. Light sentences have been imposed upon him as a warning, but have proved of no avail; and, as a result, he is sent to the State prison. It would not be amiss for me here to state that, out of my entire population of 830 convicts, 617 have been arrested before; one or the other parent of 535 was dead, when they were first arrested; 279 have, during their criminal career, gone under assumed names; 392 were arrested before attaining the age of twenty-one; 778 used intoxicating liquors before their arrest.

My experience has been that it is far better to give a convict to understand that you are thoroughly aware of his former conduct, his good points and his bad points. Exercise judgment in treating him, and it will be noticeable that the convict gives up all attempts at deception, and appears in his true light. The keeper is then in a position to turn the man out, when his term expires, better disposed toward the public. The object is to individualize, just as a teacher in a school would; not to treat classes, but persons.

The first month's experience of a subject in State prison should be more severe, for the purpose of giving the candidate an unfavorable impression, one that will fasten itself on his memory and cause him

so to conduct himself during his term that he will find it to his interest strictly to obey the rules.

In the New Jersey State prison, the convicts are worked under the contract system. We manufacture shoes, buttons, whips, and make contracts for the sewing of trousers, shirts, collars, cuffs, and laundry-work. Of all these industries, that of whip-making seems to be prolific of most good to the convict. In three years, out of the large number of convicts who worked on that branch and who have been discharged through completion of sentence, only three have been returned to the prison. The whip-shop is the only shop wherein every man learns a distinctive trade. Each division of a whip is a trade by itself. I have personal knowledge of four cases where convicts immediately obtained employment, after their discharge, at the branch of this work which they learned while in prison. Button-making is also a distinct trade. Shoemaking in some parts—cutting, fitting, and lasting—has helped toward the reformation of some ex-convicts. I discountenance shirt, collar, and cuff making, also the laundrying of the same.

In caring for the moral condition of the prisoners, I have tried to assist the moral instructor. When called upon to take charge of the prison, it was unprovided with a chapel. The minister was obliged to walk from hall to hall, and preach to the men as they stood at the doors of their cells, behind the bars. This was often attended by many inconveniences, both to the preacher and to the men. I obviated this difficulty by arranging one of the halls to answer the purpose of a chapel, at my own expense. I had a platform and pulpit constructed for holding a Protestant service. For the Catholic population, which numbers 363, I had built for the service of mass an altar and all the requirements essential to a Catholic service. For the convicts, I use the chairs from the dining tables. The appearance is that of a cosey chapel, capable of holding and seating 350 persons.

THE ADMINISTRATION OF REFORMATORIES.

BY CHARLES REEMELIN,
OF CINCINNATI.

The people and governments of the United States have inherited from Great Britain and Ireland a defective sense of the sphere, necessity, and competency of regular public administration; and they have, in consequence thereof, taken up with irregular, disjointed, semi-public organisms, which have ever proved insufficient and costly, because they have not had the proper interaction among themselves nor due supervision as to their conduct, particularly not as to their expenditures and their accounts. The primary fault seems to be with the legislatures; but, in my opinion, the prior sources are in our constitutions, because they seldom contain provisions for any organism that prepares bills for legislative action and gives comprehensiveness to their deliberations. The consequence is that the bills are written by persons that have no knowledge as to the best ways of public organization, so that they put into them their crude ideas and leave out points that would be inserted by persons of maturer experience and comprehensive knowledge. Hence, the defective sense, spoken of before, has continued to govern our legislation. Reformatories have suffered from these defects very seriously, and their sufferings have been aggravated by the submersion of their administration under our partisan ways as to appointments.

The favorite mode of organizing reformatories has been that of intrusting their management to commissions or boards that were mainly left to their own discretion. They were under no common State department, nor had they any direct active intercourse among each other. The State appropriated the money for its institutions, the cities for theirs; and they reported once annually. No chief magistrate nor any head of a department had their affairs before them as a subject of statesmanship; and each commission or board moved within its own circle, which was no wider than the conceptions of the head officer, whom, fortunately or unfortunately, the board had appointed under a system that almost precludes the selection by capacity. There was, as might be expected, no proper mode as to the examination or auditing of accounts; and expensiveness grew, as it always does, on irresponsibility. But some of the most costly

managers obtained, nevertheless, great reputations for being successful administrators by catering to the local popular desires for large outlays of public money in their neighborhoods, on which there was no effective State check from officers not under local influences.

The fact that commissions and boards had generally proved useful as initiating and afterwards as visiting bodies had misled the public mind as to their adaptation for the permanent administration and government of such institutions. Had due inquiry been made, it would have been learned that it has been for some time the axiom of the science of government and administration that single officers, with definitely prescribed duties and functions, all under routine and strict responsibility by frequent and competent inspections, are the normal agents for executing and administering public affairs.

Boards, as they are usually constituted and exist, gather no experience; and they do not grow in technical administrative knowledge. The standard for their appointment is, at best, but social standing. They must, unless conceited, soon become conscious of their lack of technical information; and they will, therefore, be inclined more and more to let their chief officer, whose capacity they may overestimate, have pretty much his own way. They take often for personal qualification what is in most cases the consequence of placing things in the hands of single men. It causes in them a sense of direct responsibility and dignity, often spurious. Even dull minds feel the elation that comes with the enjoyment of confidence. Much more and truer, however, it is felt by higher characters. In all, it is apt to become dull again, when the work done leads to no wider appreciation from personages whose opinions have value; while, on the other hand, the sense of elation is quickened into higher work by knowing that proficiencies are sure to be noticed by superiors, competent to judge and inclined to promote for excellency.

The chief officers of boards have no such incentive. They know how seldom members thereof have the discernment necessary to judge them correctly, and their approval has no great value in their eyes. They cannot help feeling that their own underlings, as they have promotion in view, provided their chief deems them meritorious, have more incentive to attain distinction than themselves.

The commissions and boards meet but once a month and even less frequently. They meet but for an hour or two, and hasten back to their private business. They are therefore of little use as controllers of the conduct of the officers over whom, in theory, they are placed. For this and other reasons, the public, which notes much

more than most people think, places little value upon the doings of boards and commissions, whose members perform public functions either gratuitously or for small pay; and public interest in them is equally low. This public indifference is a great drawback.

It is my opinion, then, that the government and administration of every public institution, and especially of reformatories, should be placed under the general regulation of the head of the appropriate State department, with power to issue instructions, rules, and regulations to the several officers in charge of them. And this State officer should have in his office an appropriate number of expert accountants and otherwise qualified persons, to be sent out on tours of inspection at any time as well as at regular periods. Charlemagne had such a body of men, called *missi regi*, for insight into public affairs, cognizance of public wants, and correction of abuses. History informs us of their beneficial influence.

I allow myself the remark, also, that the practice of executive heads of issuing instructions and orders saves legislation, because the legislator need not go into details in his bill, of which he is, after all, inadequately informed. It also simplifies the work of courts, as they have to pass on more definite issues, and are saved largely the issue of mandatory decrees on the officials of institutions,—their weak side, anyway. Thus, the enactments will be shorter as well as less erroneous, and court decisions fewer and more to the point.

The governor of the State should have the appointment of the officers of the institutions, restricted, however, to a choice from a list of three candidates submitted to him by the respective head of the department. Every vacancy should be filled only after ten days public notice, no one to be eligible after, say, 1887 to an upper place in any institution, who has not entered the public service in the lower grades and served satisfactorily.

For reformatories,—indeed, for all charitable institutions,—it should be made a State maxim to pay no per diem or salary beyond a sufficient sum to maintain the respective officer adequate to his position. An officer that grows wealthy on public charities is, in the process of time, making himself a standing contradiction to the institution in which he is employed. And he is such especially, when the object of his accumulation is preparatory to his entering on some other vocation. Our public schools are suffering from the latter cause; and I could name several instances in which men have done great injustice to the State by taking places in reformatories merely for the salary, and abandoning them as soon as they had earned

enough to enable them to enter into some profession. The inmates of reformatories have generally sharp eyes, and they see selfishness very quickly in their teacher. And, when they do, he ceases to have their respect, and can no longer be their reforming guide and instructor. Confucius, perhaps the wisest thinker on public affairs, tells us that men grown rich from the emoluments of an office are an eyesore to a rightly-minded people. It is certainly evidence that the State is not wisely tempered as to its rewards for services. And, it seems to me, the further conclusion follows, that a State amiss in its rewards is most likely also remiss in its punishments. How wrong it must be, then, to place youth detained for some delinquency or offence under overpaid officers!

May I mention here an episode in my own official life, that will throw further light on this matter? In my visits to the reformatories of Europe in 1856, the name of a Roman Catholic bishop was written with mine, by the cabinet minister, on the card admitting us to the institutions named. The bishop was a close observer and took a great interest in my notings. He learned from them that I intended to recommend to Ohio the establishment of a reformatory similar to that of Mettray. He remarked thereupon, "I feel sorry for you, for you are about to recommend to your State an institution for which there is in America no official material." I must have looked offended at the remark, as he added: "Don't be offended! I mean only that we have seen in Mettray a kind of public servants taken from the Church, the army, and the schools, whose unselfish devotion is second nature to them. Such you have not, and perhaps cannot have in the New World." We intended to talk the matter over again at leisure; but, before we could do so, he was unexpectedly called away. The bishop's remarks deserve most assuredly very serious reflection.

I ask leave to give another of my experiences in Europe in the year named. One of the most interesting acquaintances I made then in Paris was the deceased banker, Zellweger, a native of Switzerland, and the founder of several reformatories in his native land. He told me that the most efficient managers of his institutions were aged married couples, whose children had left home, and had successfully established themselves. He averred further that the wife was of more importance than the husband. If the latter had, however, served in the army and had filled an officer's position, or been a teacher or preacher, he would be more likely to be of transcendent benefit than persons taken from other occupations. I take from all this the lesson

that, varied as reformatories are as to their general character, size, and specific tendencies, the qualifications necessary for head managers are equally varied ; that for all, however, there are requisite a superior education, a marked humane disposition, and a most positive self-control.

And, now, I must call your attention to a very important item in the administration of reformatories. It may be comprised in the general expression, that they must largely educate their own *subofficers*. This is important, not only in saving expense, but also as a means for stimulating the self-reform of the inmates. It is at the same time a standing public announcement that the State has confidence in the efficiency of its own reformatory institutions.

As far as possible, every squad of ten youth should be under the lead of some youth that has been reformed in a reformatory, and has gradually risen from grade to grade to the highest, and is then entitled to be called cadet, elder brother, or subaltern ; these cadets to sleep in the same room with the inmates, to eat at the same table with them, and to share their work and their play. They should receive at least quarter-pay of the assistant officers ; and this rate would not be too low, as it includes board and lodging and a favorable reintroduction into common life. They should be distinguishable by wearing a uniform. I am sure that the constant sight of reformed and rewarded youth, who came into the institution, originally tainted, and are now promoted and under pay, is the best encouragement possible to the other inmates. I at least found it so at Mettray and several other institutions, where this practice prevailed. The expense for salaries was always less than half of what it was in institutions that were exclusively officered from the outside. And I have not the least doubt that whenever this system of cadets shall be general, and a free interchange can be made, reformatories can be officered mostly from within themselves. Then it will also be possible to communicate and to carry out from one reformatory to the other the special excellences and reforms each may have practically established.

One, to my mind, essential recommendation is that the *per diem* or salary of officers should include board ; that is to say, they should board themselves out of any pecuniary compensation they may get, or, as the French would say, have their own *ménage*. They might be allowed, like the army officers in Europe, to purchase certain general food — such as bread, soup, coffee, or tea — from the *ménage* of the institution at cost prices, but their table to be separate and at their own expense, as well as under their own orders. The prevailing

present method is to board the officers and their families at the institution free of charge,—a practice that leads to unseemly expenditures, from which questions arise and are commented on, which should never occur. In it is also involved the degree of hospitality which officers may exercise toward their relatives, friends, or strangers. That this has been frequently abused cannot be denied, but it is also true that some officers have been unjustly blamed. The best way is certainly to cut off all cavil by doing what we have recommended. And, if it would lead to the abolition of the pernicious custom of feasting distinguished visitors, it would be still more satisfactory. By all such practices, the discipline of the institution is lowered, the questions as to the treatment of the inmates complicated; for, in every case, the extra good living afforded to some specially is at the expense of the food for the inmates.

The food to be furnished to the inmates should be the only question for public consideration, and good sense requires that this should be below rather than above the average living in the respective States. A close economy should be patent everywhere, and it should rest on a sacred regard for all public property. An uneconomically conducted State institution is a public nuisance, and a curse to the inmates, whose very cause thereby becomes unpopular. States as generous as the American States are to public charities have a right to expect the most careful economy from their officers, but still more from the beneficiaries of their benevolence. Among the rules for reformatories should always be some method for securing to the inmates, by some special arrangement, any and all savings of expense, as well as all increased earnings caused by their respective personal abstinences or virtues. In connection herewith, it may be well to add that where reformatories are located on farms, or where there are extensive grounds attached, there should always be vegetable gardening for the use of the inmates. The greatest boon to human beings is instruction in modes of production that result largely in direct food for the inhabitants. The more and the better this is done, the securer against reverses are communities. The best staff of life that can be given to inmates of reformatories is to teach them how to produce varieties of direct human food.

Nothing conduces more to the steady, if gradual improvement of public administration than a thorough system of inspection and comparative reports. With separate board management, this is as impossible as the gradual improvement of jurisprudence is under exclusive jury trials. Nobody will collate the verdicts of juries as established

law; for they apply only to one case, do not arise from legal reasoning, and can never be precedents in other cases. It is similar with board administration or inspection. Not being systematic nor a part of executive policy, they never amount to an addition to the science of administration; while in the hands of schooled and disciplined public servants there is a constant progressive, higher development. This is especially the case where the various branches of the respective public service interact, and the regulation of the superior officers has a healthy reaction from the inferior officers. And I doubt whether any one ever became great or good in any public work, if he did not increase his knowledge by detailed inspections, inquiries, and comparisons. That was Charlemagne's idea by his *missi regi*, and it is to-day the basis of the efficiency of the German armies. In the United States, we have it best in the revenue and post-office inspections; but it is most needed in our reformatories, and our county and city administration, lamed as they are by disjointed board rule.

This National Conference is one step toward a better interaction among reformatories. Another more direct one would be to give them a national reason for existence, and that is feasible by using the State and municipal reformatories as a part of the recruiting service for the regular army and navy. It would be improper to discuss, at the close of this paper, how far and in what manner this should be done. If the national authorities will but take the subject up, they can best tell us to what extent this measure might supersede the present obsolete and unreliable, as well as costly recruiting service. Assuming that there are in the United States fifty thousand male youth that should be in reformatories, it looks as if there would be among them material enough for all the soldiers the United States may wish to employ as regulars. If provisions for sailors for the navy were included, it would, of course, change the calculation. I believe that one of the good results of a participation of the union government in the administration of reformatories would be its willingness to use West Point cadets as instructors in preparatory military drill. And a further result might be the establishment of receiving stations for the removal of all inmates that have been found fit for the transfer. There would soon be a rapid absorption, that would not fail to be a relief to all those institutions that have not as yet regular outlets for their reformed inmates.

In conclusion, it is necessary for us to say, with a view to avoid misunderstanding, that, although we advocate generally a change from board management to regular public administration that shall

be co-operative, as national, State, and municipal authorities, yet we are not against retaining as part of the laborers in the work those smaller institutions called in France *orphelins*, in England industrial schools, and here by various designations, especially such as owe their origin to public-spirited men or societies, including those established on the cottage plan. I know full well the necessity of variety in reformatory schools. As public administration has had to reform our common schools and yet still tolerates private schools, so would I reform reformatories, and yet leave unmolested, except by public inspection, the establishments founded and managed by private persons or heads of families, or societies or churches. The true regular never rejects the volunteer.

I hope I have shown that the same agency that has secured most progress in modern times — *a well-organized public administration* — is necessary also in reference to reformatories. With this hope, my paper is respectfully submitted.

DISCIPLINE IN REFORMATORIES.

BY W. G. FAIRBANK,

SUPERINTENDENT REFORM SCHOOL, VERMONT.

Among the many questions relating to reformatories is the one, How shall we secure and maintain good discipline? It is, of course, conceded that this must be accomplished through the officers of the institution and mainly through the superintendent and his subordinates.

It follows, therefore, that it is of first importance to place in charge, as superintendent, a man or woman, as the case may be, who is a close student of human nature, who watches symptoms to detect and determine the nature of the disease; one in whose heart mercy tempers justice, and justice prevents partiality and favoritism; a person of resources and of sufficient perception to be able to gather about him such assistants as shall, by their hearty co-operation and intelligent work, make the most of their individual positions, that the one great end sought may be attained,—the reformation of the inmates.

With such a superintendent and assistants, the next question will be, What constitutes good discipline? Let us visit one of our many reformatories. As we enter the buildings, we are met by the superintendent, who receives us cordially, and with marked politeness shows us through the institution. Absolute cleanliness is seen in every department. Order seems to be regarded as "heaven's first law" in every place. We see the inmates at their work, in school, during their recreations, and at their meals. We witness their devotional exercises; we see them retire for the night. Every signal receives attention, every order is instantly obeyed. All seems like one great machine, in which every one performs his or her part with prompt precision and accuracy. You ask, Is not this good discipline? I answer: I do not know. It is *precise* discipline. To determine the quality of the discipline, we must know whether it is secured and maintained mainly by force or fear, or by a willing and cheerful obedience, prompted by the approving assent of the mind to that which the inmates have come to believe to be wholesome, beneficial, and right, instead of unnecessary, irksome, and wrong.

To obtain a cheerful and willing assent of the mind to proper rules and regulations, so that the inmate obeys with pleasure, glad of an opportunity to show the rectitude of his purpose, the sincerity with which he recognizes the good intended, is the goal for which all true lovers of good discipline will strive.

The question, What constitutes a good disciplinarian? is of equal importance.

Examples are often given of those who are considered by many as first-class disciplinarians, of whom it is said: Their simple presence commands; they can control a large number of men or youth without force or the exercise of arbitrary power. They seem to have a personal magnetism about them, by which they rule at will. Or, it may be said, their disposition is so even, their manner so pleasing, their words so fitly chosen and so kindly spoken, that they win the affection and esteem of all, and consequently their obedience. Another, whose words are few, whose manner is dignified and reserved, who adheres with unflinching exactness to a certain stipulated system of rewards and punishments, maintains a clock-work discipline. All of these deserve credit as disciplinarians. It may be truly said that, in discipline, they are far in advance of the average disciplinarians found as officers and instructors in our reformatories. Most, if not all, of the above qualifications are desirable; yet these alone will not secure the best or highest discipline. It is not a discipline of the inmates. It will not stand the test of the absence of the disciplinarian. It is not lasting in its nature. The inmates thus controlled coming into the charge of another person may, at any instant, become disorderly and provokingly disobedient; and this, when the person into whose charge they come is both well-meaning and kindly in his actions and words, but who possesses the above qualifications in a less degree or who lacks experience and tact to govern well. The highest and best discipline is not that which is secured alone by one's personal presence or magnetism or power to govern, or even by winning manners, loveliness of character, or affectionate concern for the welfare of his charge. All these are desirable qualifications, potent adjuncts, acting upon rather than in and through the person governed.

In addition there should be, and to secure the greatest good there must be, an ability to impart to the inmates, by precept and example, a right conception of duty, which shall lead to the formation of principle, by which the person's choice shall lead him or her to do right and conform to good government and wholesome regulations. Hence, as an end by which to secure and maintain good discipline, too much pains cannot be taken in the selection of suitable persons to act as superintendents, officers, and teachers in our reformatories, and to educate them in the work, lest they fail to appreciate — and thus to practise — the best methods of discipline.

CAN WE SAVE THE BOYS? *

BY J. D. SCOULLER, M.D.,

SUPERINTENDENT STATE REFORM SCHOOLS, PONTIAC, ILL.

Men and women who never have had any boys can always best tell how to save them. I have some of my own, and a great many belonging to other people, and therefore should know very little about the subject. The plan was once tried of having men "ready made" without the boys. The man was such a failure that the experiment has never been repeated. Men are only overgrown boys, some of them hardly that. There are three classes about whom we naturally ask, "Can we save the boys?" The first class will be saved without much trouble or trying. The second class will be greatly benefited and improved by efforts in their behalf. The third class is *in articulo mortis*, morally dying or dead.

Members of the first class you may have read about in good little books, or, it may be, you may have met them in every-day life, if you have kept your eyes and, more particularly, your ears open. They never gave their mothers a heartache since birth. Their thoughts and feelings and actions seem always modified by a halo of old age. Their whole character is rounded off. No ugly, scraggy scars deface their symmetrical reputation. The mould in which they were cast must have been perfect. They love to read the lives of saints and martyrs; they never smoke cigars, chew tobacco, or drink liquor; never were seen at a horse-race or playing a game of baseball. Ninety per cent. of this class die young. The remaining ten per cent., if they grow to manhood, must be those critical, complaining, inoffensive, old bachelors, who "need no repentance."

The second class of boys is what, in æsthetical society, might be called rather fast boys, with too much life, yet good-hearted boys. They will get into a fight now and then, with the result sometimes of a black eye. Some of them will even run off from school to see a horse-trot or to visit a circus, if they know that Jumbo or Barnum will be on exhibition. They will jump into the river to save a drowning kitten, and yet rob a bird's nest. This is the class whose eyes dance when they read *Jack, the*

* This paper, although read before the Eleventh National Conference of Charities and Correction, was not written for that occasion. Dr. Scouller, however, consented to its publication at the request of the Conference.

Giant Killer, and wish they had his sword of sharpness and his cap of knowledge, that they might set free all the beautiful lady captives of all the Bluebeards in the world.

From this class come our best business men, our best teachers, and our best preachers. In fact, the stamina, the backbone, the fibre of the world, are in it. The pushing, energetic, "no-such-word-as-fail" men, the man whose pocket is always open and whose heart is ever softened by suffering, are from this class. Your heroes, who marched with unwavering step up to the loaded cannon's mouth and died with victory's shout on your battle-fields; the men who, with disease on one hand and death on the other, but with the "good news" in their souls, have pierced the thickets of Africa and climbed Abyssinian mountains, to carry the bread of life to dying men and women,—are from this second class.

Sometimes, a few of them drop down into the third class, and get into prison and disrepute. Somebody did not do his duty, or they might, they should have been saved.

Now, we come to the third class: the boys who will make our criminals, who will be our law-breakers; the boys who love the world, the flesh, and the devil. A few of them get into the Reform School, and the rest are good raw material from which to make politicians and criminal lawyers.

The boys who prowl the streets at midnight, whose hands are too soft for manual labor, who are too young and delicate to work, belong to this class. The streets at midnight and no work will damn the best boy that ever a mother nursed. These boys for whole nights will not be at home. They are very positive that the principal of the public school is not fit to teach; and, as like produces like, the parents generally sympathize with their promising boys. These are boys who only attend Sabbath-school about the time of picnics; and then they can attend all in town, if the hours are suitable. Solomon says you may "bray them in a mortar among wheat with a pestle," but you will only damage the wheat. These are the boys who hold truth to be such a precious jewel that they keep it locked up safely at home, and never carry it abroad with them; boys who can, on the street corners, curse and blaspheme their God as early in years as there are letters in their oaths; who can smoke and chew and drink; can push their caps on one side, and leer at passers-by when only children; whose father is the "old man," and their mother "the old woman" or "old Sallie," and very often the "old woman" thinks "our Tim's awful smart"; boys who will strike their mothers when

little more than out of their swaddling bands; who pore over those five-cent pollutions called novels; who think that Jack Shepperd, Dick Turpin, Claude Duval, and Jesse James are heroes of heroes; who think the *Newgate Calendar* the finest book ever published. These are the boys who will make the thieves and criminals of society; who will fill our reformatories, our prisons, our jails, and penitentiaries. And some of them, when there, will commit to memory more verses of Scripture, show more genuine piety, and talk of that blessed word of God with more apparent zeal and earnestness than ever cloistered monk dreamed of; and who will stand on the scaffold with the noose in sight, and feel as if they were martyrs, while reciting the most thrilling passages of some dreadful murder or murders they have committed, and who now would not take their freedom, if offered a pardon! They have found peace and forgiveness, their sins are all washed away; and now they are only waiting for unclean hands to swing them into Paradise. I sometimes think that it would be a wonderful accession to heaven and a grateful relief to mother earth, if all the members of this class could be hanged when young. They are always converted before they are hanged. Is not such mockery enough to make the angels weep? I have read of one thief converted on the cross, that we should never despair, but only one, that you and I should not be presumptuous.

We have now diagnosed the three classes. What is the prognosis?

The first class is out of danger. The second class fevered, but with careful nursing should get well. The third class almost past redemption, not very much hope.

Of the first class, we have nothing to say. All is well with them. Of the second class, we say they should be saved. Our Sunday-schools, our public libraries, our social gatherings, our sacred songs, our preaching, are for such boys. To save them is the work of noble men and women all over the land. Our churches and Sunday-schools should try to bring them in, cry to them to come in, press them in, draw them in by example as well as precept. When they are in, you should teach them that, when they think they are too big for the Sunday-school, there is another school a little higher up, the house of God, and, God helping, they should be saved.

You may not be able to make all of them saints, but you can make them honest, law-abiding men. From twenty to thirty per cent. of this class will drop down into the third class. The rest are like clay in the potter's hand: they can be moulded into the fashion of men.

This is the class where efforts for their salvation will return a rich harvest in the day when God makes up his jewels.

But we must be honest in our work. It will not do to preach to a boy meekness, and then get angry ; or patience, and be petulant ; or firmness, and be wavering like the wind ; or honesty, and the next day cheat your neighbor in a trade ; or faith, and yet take every step by sight alone ; or total abstinence, while your breath smells of whiskey. You may preach all these virtues and moral excellences to men, but you cannot do it successfully to boys. Their critical side is always uppermost ; and their conclusions, drawn from their own premises, are always favorable to their own side of the case, without using the reason of maturer years.

You tell a boy he must walk in such and such a way, his actions must be on the square, if he ever expects to be strong or wise or beautiful. Your lesson is ended, and you forget your own theories ; but that boy watches, and sees the first step you take out of the road you pointed out to *him*. Your lesson has lost its power, and the boy has lost for you his respect. Boys are like women,—think rapidly, come to conclusions quickly, and generally they are not far from right. Boys demand honest teaching, honest practice, otherwise they would better have none.

So far, I have spoken only of boys who have been blessed with parental care. Many of the Arabs belonging to the community have no such care. They are left to fight the battle of life alone, the world for their step-mother, sorrow their only schoolmaster. It takes far more innate virtue for a boy under such circumstances to grow into an honest, God-fearing man than it does for a boy who is kindly watched and cared for ; and, for this very reason, the more loudly comes the Macedonian cry, " Help us ! help us ! "

" What can I do for you ? " a lady once asked a weeping orphan. " O ma'am, you can aye speak a kind word to me ; for I have no mother like the rest. " If there be no help nor kind words for such boys from good men and women, then may " God hear the voice of the lads, " and rouse us to our duty. The saving of such boys is a work, not a myth ; a fact, not a theory ; a privilege as well as a duty.

Sir Humphry Davy was once asked for a list of his greatest discoveries. He answered, " My greatest discovery was Michael Faraday. " He found him, a poor boy, washing bottles in his laboratory. He lifted him up, till he became one of the world's greatest men. The Christian worker who discovers a good mind and soul, though amid poverty and rags, is among the greatest of modern discoverers.

Dr. Guthrie, of Edinburgh, one of the fathers of ragged schools, was once at a meeting where a speaker described Dr. Guthrie's ragged school children as "the scum of the country." When the Doctor's turn for speaking came, he seized a sheet of writing paper lying on the table, and, holding it up, said: "This was once the scum of the country,—once foul, dirty, wretched rags. In it now, white as the snows of heaven, behold an emblem of the work our ragged schools have achieved." The harvest truly is plenteous, but some of the laborers have lost their reaping-hooks.

We now come to the third class. I have had some little experience with this class; and I am convinced, after no little thought, that the State should demand the guardianship of the children of all parents who, either from their criminal proclivities or actual transgressions, are unfit to manage their children other than raise them as law-breakers or vagabonds. The State should take them when they are young enough to be susceptible to moral lessons, if there be any moral soil to plant on. A man found sowing thistle seed on another man's farm or scattering fire-brands in a city should at once be punished. Yet this nation, founded on democracy, whose very existence depends on the virtue of its members, suffers a criminal class to grow, whose whole aim and object is to undermine the confidence of the community and to weaken the strength of the Commonwealth. The State has a right in self-defence to seek to control and try to subdue all influences tending to weaken its powers; and the State, in trying to save itself, might be the means of saving many boys, who otherwise would go to destruction.

The boys of this third class are not all from the criminal ranks. We find, on examination, that there may be perhaps twenty per cent. from respectable and well-regulated homes, thirty per cent. from the careless, undisciplined, but not necessarily criminal, families, and fifty per cent. from the criminal classes of society.

"How are we to save them?" For six thousand years, that interrogation has stood practically unanswered. We can find as many theories from men and books for the social and moral redemption of this class as there are patent medicines for the cure of physical diseases, and experience proves that the one has about as much potency as the other. The criminal bred and born can, in my opinion, be cured only by stopping production. You cannot change a scrub into a shorthorn or a lion into a lamb all at once, even if you take charge of them when young. Non-production is the only radical salvation I know of, both for the criminal and the security of society.

How hard the task is to save such a class! Let us, for a few moments, look at the material we have to work with. I cannot do this more intelligibly than by giving you a sample of what has come under my own observation. For example, Mrs. L. comes to see her boy in February, who was sentenced to the school for three years. She weeps and prays in the office: "O Doctor, it's the first disgrace ever came to darken our family. I can show you 'recommends' of the respectability of our family." In April of the same year, she was sentenced to serve three years in Joliet, her husband to one year. Most recommendable family!*

"Please, Doctor, won't you ask the governor to have my boy pardoned? I will pray for you night and morning. The boy's father is sick, and Johnny is our only help. He was the best boy in the world until Mickey took him away from home. I have tried to do my best for him, and told him not to break the laws of the school." She goes home. In a few days, she sends her dear boy an old vest, worth two cents for rags; and, inside of the lining, a dollar bill, neatly stitched in. Johnny must obey the rules!

Another, a father, says: "Do what your teachers tell you. Be a man in your conduct. By express, I will send you a cake which will be a cake." We put a wire through that cake that is a cake. Something hard is felt: it is a silver dollar.

"O Mr. Boss of the school, could you not let my dear boy go home? I'm a widow, and work hard for a living. My boy always went to church and Sunday-school until the bad boys in the neighborhood enticed him away from his dear mother. O my boy, be good, and obey the rules. Try and make the teachers love you, and, if we should never meet on earth again, let us meet in heaven. When I get home, I will send you something nice to eat." Yes, pies for Eddie. Try them with a needle. Too solid for anything but "army pies." Whew! stuffed with tobacco from the honest widow.

Yet sometimes from just such families springs a boy or girl who stands out like a beacon light on the dangerous, rugged seashore. The storm has blown over. Still, with steady light they shine, while all around is ruin, wreck, and death.

Save the boys? It is the *men* and *women*, the *fathers* and *mothers* of the land, whom we must save, or separate the boys from such influences.

I hear some one say: "You can change the leopard's spots. Pray

* Yet this boy for the past six years and a half has been satisfactorily employed by a wholesale firm in a large Western city.

for them." Another says, "Preach to them." "Love them," says a third. "Show them they are on the broad road to ruin. Call to them: 'Turn ye! turn ye! why will ye die?' Christ will wash away all your sins, and make you whiter than snow." No person knows better what to do with bad boys than those who never had any experience with such. What wild and mistaken notions some good people have of what they could do with this class of boys!

Dr. K. was visiting our school on a mission to try to do the boys some good. He had visited jails for several years, and talked to the inmates every Sabbath. He was a simple, good-hearted man. He began in a very confidential manner. "Boys, if I could have only seen you, and told you what I am going to tell you to-night, not one of you would have been here." The boys were all attention at once, evidently thinking it was some new dodge to beat the judge and jury who committed them. Then he began to read, "Come unto me, all ye that labor and are heavy-laden, and I"—By this time, you could hear, *sotto voce*, "It's a sell," "Tell it to the marines," etc. The Doctor might understand the organic stomach: the spiritual organ of digestion in a bad boy he never had dissected. Evidently, he imagined they had never heard that story before.

One of our own Livingston County Sunday-school superintendents, when visiting the school one day, after being through the shops and school-rooms among the boys, says: "Doctor, what these boys need is praying for. You cannot tell me anything about boys. These are no worse than others. I have taught too many Sunday-schools not to know boys when I see them." He feels in his pocket for his handkerchief. Gone! "Say, R., did not I put a handkerchief in my pocket before I started for the school?"

"I thought you did; but never mind, here's mine."

"Ah! Oh! I'll bet [Sunday-school teachers should never bet] the little devils have stolen it."

A poet has said:—

"One man may look into the skies,
And see ten thousand angels smiling down.
Another looks, and sees as many demons frown."

A twenty-five cent handkerchief changed the very angelic smiles of these boys to demon frowns in a very short space of time. From very good little boys to very bad little devils (especially by one who knew boys so well), all in the same breath, is what might be called instantaneous *conversion*. The unrighteous might call it *aversion*.

The Sabbath service in a reform school is of great importance. It is often very difficult to find preachers who can combine common sense and theology. Many years ago, a superintendent of a very large prison informed me that he had thirteen different preachers follow each other in succession on Sabbath day with the Prodigal Son, evidently impressed with Dr. K.'s idea, that they never had heard it before.

In the State Reform School at Pontiac, Ill., in the spring of 1881, we had a layman give an excellent talk on the Prodigal Son; the following Sabbath, ditto by a preacher; and the third Sabbath I trembled with fear lest we, too, were in for an epidemic of prodigal, and I must say the most brilliant man of them all gave us a talk on the Prodigal Son for forty-five minutes. On the fourth Sabbath, one of my teachers whispered to the minister, as he entered the chapel door, "Talk to us on anything but the Prodigal Son"; and, but for that warning, we should have had an address on that matchless story. Washington's little hatchet and the prodigal eating husks are the bugbears of reform schools. The boys don't believe the hatchet lie; and some of them think husks are not so bad, if the roasting ears are underneath.

When I was assistant superintendent in the St. Louis House of Refuge, we were often visited on Sabbath day by members of the "Praying Band," a company of noble men and women, whose only aim was the good of the community and the glory of God. One of the ladies, named Mrs. R., was very anxious to secure a situation in the Refuge. "If I were an officer," she said, "I could show you a better way to govern these boys, Doctor,—more Bible and less whip." Ultimately, she was employed as a cook. She gave up her keys,—had no use for them,—left the pantry unlocked, so that "trusting" the boys would make them honest. She got Bibles, and leave to have family worship in the morning as an experiment. Hams disappeared, pies took wings and flew away; and I found, on investigation, always during prayers. I told the boys that they must give her a chance, she was working for their welfare. I cautioned her to see that her boys did not steal from her. She was very indignant that I should even suspect such a thing.

"Doctor, that is the very way to make boys dishonest. These boys are wonderfully improved. Some of them now are almost under conviction for their sin."

There was soon so much stealing from the pantry that I determined to bring the whole thing to a focus. One morning, with great

caution, a position was obtained, commanding a full view of the battlefield. After kneeling in prayer (which was the outpouring of at least one good honest soul), all the boys with one consent and without invitation made for the substantials in the pantry. Everything comes to an end. So did that prayer; but the boys knew the ending, and were leaving the pantry to take their humble position beside their teacher, when an awful statue, with index finger pointing straight toward that pantry door, stopped their further progress. The first boy (colored) who appeared at the door had, in his hurry, put his head into a milk-pan and lapped the milk, as heroes before him did water; and the sight he met deprived him of power to wipe away the evidence. Another behind him had pockets full of dough-nuts; some had one thing, some another. Eight boys trying to get through a two foot ten door, with a horrible ogre in plain sight ten feet away. It must have been only a fancy; but, if the colored boy was not white for a few moments, then he never will be. When the prayer was ended, and Mrs. R. rose to her feet, the scene was worthy the pencil of a Hogarth. She then learned more of human nature in ten seconds than in the previous forty-five years of her life. Not one word was spoken. The next time I saw her, she was engaged in breaking off branches from a peach-tree for some purpose.

"Well, Mrs. R., how do you get along with the boys now?"

"Pretty well, Doctor, pretty well. I think I'll manage them as long as the peach-tree lasts."

I used to call it Mrs. R.'s conversion from *Bible* to *peach-tree* salvation. There is one thing I have found out; and that is that between the Bible and the *peach-tree* there is a great gap, which ought to be filled with common sense.

At a convention of ministers in our city, seventeen of them came to the school to visit us. We assembled in chapel, and many of the clergymen were very anxious for an opportunity to speak to the boys. It was finally agreed that each man should not talk over five minutes. Some of them talked very well. One man said he never had had such an opportunity in all his ministry to speak a good word for the Master. Seven of them talked in the same general strain,—“You are bought with a price: you do not belong to the State, not even to yourself.” The eighth preacher, by his manner of speech and his shade of egotism, was anxious to impress on the boys' minds the full theological significance of the work of redemption. He thought he could make it so very plain that the runner—yea, even the bad boy—could read it in his haste. He would illustrate, a dangerous

quagmire to travel through with bad boys. He took out his watch, which, of course, was his own, as he had bought it. What a powerful illustration he could make of that fact!

"Boys, what is this I hold in my hand?"

Chorus, "A watch."

"What is it good for?"

Chorus, "To keep time."

"Now where do you think I got it?"

Chorus, "Stole it."

That speech was the shortest of all, and also the last. Not another man would speak. You can imagine how much he had improved on the others in his illustration of redemption with a stolen watch. Every one of these teachers was a zealous, earnest worker for the Master. They were "harmless as doves," but not "wise as serpents." They would do for the first or second class; but, for the third class of boys, they were only beating the wind.

How then are they to be saved? It is one of God's modern miracles to save such. God works miracles even in these days. Pearls are very beautiful; but, before they are ready for the necklace, some one must have gone down into ocean's depths, braving death for the pearl oysters. Then he brings them to the surface, and spreads them out in long troughs in the sun, that its warm rays may crack them open; and there, among the slush and decaying matter, he feels carefully for his pearls till he finds them. So is it with this class of humanity. You feel away down in the slums of vice and crime, in the dark prison cell, amid the wrecks of decayed hopes and broken hearts; and, sometimes, you will find a pearl, a pearl of great price.

Is it worth the work, will it pay for the trouble? asks our pessimistic friend.

The eminent educator Horace Mann, when delivering an address at the opening of a reformatory institution for boys, remarked that, if only one boy was saved from ruin, it would pay for all the cost and care and labor of establishing such an institution. After the exercises had closed, in private conversation, a gentleman rallied Mr. Mann upon his statement, and said to him, "Did you not color that a little, when you said that 'all the expense and labor would be repaid, if it only saved one boy'?" "No, sir! Not if it was my boy," was the solemn and convincing reply. Every one of this class of boys, though in the depths of sin, though seethed in guilt and crime, is somebody's boy. Some father called him *my boy*, some mother on bended knee may now be sobbing out her heart's prayer —

"Where is my wandering boy to night?
Go search for him where you will,
But bring him to me with all his blight,
And tell him I love him still."

The largest portion of this class use stimulants of some kind, though many of the worst and smartest are sober and cautious, their peculiar work requiring a cool head and a steady hand. There are many boys in this class who are not criminals by nature. The habits of society, the companionships they form, or the warped and narrow-minded discipline of the paternal home may have had much to do with their fall. This portion of the third class, even in their most degraded hours, has yet a small spark of manhood left. Honor and gratitude the hereditary criminal never comprehended. I never yet met a born thief or property criminal who knew the meaning of honor. Their souls are as impermeable to gratitude as the granite slab to the rays of the sun. They are always innocent of the crimes charged against them. The fellow who did the deed generally escapes. They have always complaints to make,—“not used as they should be,” “everybody down on them.”

Away up in the Splügen Pass in Switzerland there is a clear crystal stream tumbling down the mountain side. It flows on through the meadows and shady woods: it moves slower and slower, till at last it retains so little of its original force that it has to be pumped into the Northern Sea at Rotterdam. Such is the beautiful Rhine, born on the hill-tops, among the eagles' nests, yet in old age vigor gone, and without tide-power enough to empty itself into the sea. How often in life have we the same result? Boys start out from Christian homes, from loving fathers and mothers, pure in thought and feeling, as the Rhine water is pure amid the rugged hills of Switzerland. Yet we find them down in this third class, wrecked in their prime on ruin's beach. Down, down, manhood gone, good resolutions gone, their will power in subjection to the devil. Yet they are somebody's boys and worth saving. I have said that the habits of society, companions, and home discipline were often the causes for their fall. Bad companions and drinking intoxicating drinks, habits formed before maturity, have often laid the way for deeds of crime and blood.

In regard to home discipline and the mistaken notions of good men, I must say, in many cases that I have seen, such discipline has only produced evil. A fine business man in Illinois had a boy in the Reform School. The boy did well, and was granted a ticket of

leave and then pardoned. I visited him, when his father told him in my presence that the first slip he made in his conduct, the very first error, he might as well leave the house, he would not tolerate him any longer in his folly. There was to be no base-ball, nor circus, nor theatre, but Sunday-school and church as often as he liked. Had this been a boy of the first class or even the second, he might have been all right. He was not, and both the boy's conduct and that of his father were not what they should have been. You cannot make cast-iron rules to govern a family. Temperaments are not all the same, inclinations not all alike. Some of the family may inherit a little of the original savage. What is to be done with such? If you cannot get the boy up to your plane, you must come down to his, and help him up to yours. Do not call down from the heights of exalted position, "When I was a boy like you, I never did this or that." Do not overrate your past goodness, and overrate your boy's present badness. That business man in Illinois was as far removed from his son, in feeling and sympathy, as the east is from the west. He wished to make his boy a saint or nothing. He must be a model of goodness, and not like any common boy: otherwise, his father would wash his hands and say, "I am clean of this boy's blood." The *essence* of salvation in a worldly sense is the same, but there is a difference in *degree*. There are many steps in a ladder, so there are many degrees in salvation. In the discipline of families, this fact of degrees in virtue has been overlooked, often to the damage of all concerned. If you can civilize the savage, you do well; but, if you will not civilize him, because you cannot Christianize him, then you do wrong. If you reform a drunkard and make a sober man of him and a better member of society, you have done a good work. If you will not do so, unless you can make him join some church, then you are not doing your duty.

Do not expect all your boys to stand on the top step of the ladder. You may find it hard work to get some of them out of the mud on to the lowest step: better there than in the mire. There are many inside of the Church, even teaching others how to walk, whose shoes still show the traces of the clay and struggle to reach even the first round. I passed the store of that man I have mentioned, some time ago; and he did not even answer my nod. Years before, I had told him what I am now telling you,—that he could not allay his boy's spirit by curbs and halter. Punishment may maintain a rigid discipline, but punishment *per se* never reformed a man or boy. I advised him to try to be a companion as well as a father; that he might even

take his boy to the circus, go out with him when he went to take a walk, rather go with him to some place of amusement than let him go alone, until the Bohemian spirit of the boy was broken into the harness of a quiet life; and that he might at least make his boy a law-abiding member of society, if he was not able to make him a saint. He thought me worse than an infidel, and thinks I am a dangerous man. I told him some men would have to answer for more sins than their own. As I looked at him, in his own imagination on the topmost round of the ladder, tapping at the heavenly gate, I asked the question, Hast thou, my friend, yet taken the first step with the Man of Sorrows,—the first step in the path of Him whose feet were washed by a sinner's tears and wiped with the hair of her head,—of Him who said, "Go, sin no more"?

"Heaven is not reached by a single bound;
But we build the ladder by which we rise
From the lowly earth to the vaulted skies,
And mount to the summit round by round."

That man's case was not different from many I could mention, perhaps not unlike many that others have seen.

When our boys sink down to eternal ruin or drink the dregs from the cup of moral death, let us ask our own souls if we have done what we could to set their feet on the "Rock of Ages," where boys and men are safe from the storms of time and eternity

On that great day when you and I shall stand before the Judge of all the earth, it will not be any excuse to say, I was too busy on my farm or in my store, I had too much to do on "Board of Trade" or in my counting-house. We can find time and money for our own pursuits, to gratify our own ambition, while some of our boys are on the broad road which leads to eternal death.

It was a beautiful baptismal benediction, that of the Arab priest: "My child, as you came into the world weeping, while all around you smiled, may you so live that you may leave the world smiling, while all around you weep."

If we could only live such lives as this, our boys would be better, the world purer, death serener, and immortality more glorious than ever angel sung.

V.

Child-saving Work.

INTRODUCTORY ADDRESS

BY HON. C. D. RANDALL,

CHAIRMAN OF THE COMMITTEE ON CHILD-SAVING WORK.

So far, this Conference has inquired into the best methods for the proper support of the poor, the reduction of the expense of that work to the lowest possible minimum, and also into the reformation of juvenile offenders. These subjects have been ably presented; and their discussion will, I trust, awaken a new interest in that direction.

To-day, however, we go back to the logical beginning of these questions and, placing the little child in our midst who has only known purity, virtue, and truth, and looking upon its beauty and innocence, ask ourselves the profoundest question in social science, How shall we save this child from chronic poverty and a life of crime?

The place of this question on the programme is satisfactory to me. It serves to call attention to its former position. As we have considered here poverty and crime first, so for all time society has neglected the abandoned and ill-treated child, until, surrounded by evil associations, it has become dependent or criminal. Then society, for self-protection, has built expensive asylums, reformatories, and prisons, expending millions: whereas, prevention, which would build more school-houses and churches, fewer asylums, reformatories, and prisons, would have relieved itself of great burdens, and, above all, would have saved the child.

Returning, then, to the logical beginning of our conference work, we consider to-day how we may decrease poverty and crime to its minimum by the care and education of abandoned, neglected, and ill-treated children. It will not be my place to discuss methods. That will be ably done in the interesting papers that will be presented. I intend principally to call your attention to the condition and prospects of preventive work in this and some other countries, as briefly as possible.

I cannot forbear on this "Children's Day"—made more attractive by floral decorations and music, so kindly furnished by St. Louis ladies,—with my committee composed principally of ladies, from alluding briefly to woman's position in this branch of social reform. With the knowledge that she to-day is founding asylums, schools, and hospitals for the children of the poor; that in them, as matron, teacher, or superintendent, she is doing the best work and securing the most gratifying results; and that, in public and private, she is doing constant duty in an intelligent and self-sacrificing manner,—I am convinced that without her presence the reforms desired would seldom, if ever, be secured. In our work to-day, I am sure we have not only her profoundest sympathy, but her uniform good sense and zealous assistance. In this and other countries, woman stands at the head in work for the children. With no compromise with wrong, inquiring only for the truth, always on the right side of questions of liberty, temperance, equality, we are never in doubt regarding her position. She may err when misled; but, left to herself, her aspirations are always of the higher kind. Whether as a Christian martyr at the stake or in the arena, whether perishing on the scaffold for civil liberty, or risking her life where the air is rank and thick with infection in caring for the dying, she never falters in her devotion. Long ago, she was Mary bathing the feet of her Master with her tears; a little while since, she was Florence Nightingale nursing the sick in camp and field; and, only yesterday, she was Mary Carpenter, of beautiful and blessed memory, devoting her many years of loving work for the rescue of little children. Whenever and wherever we find her, she is always the fearless and uncompromising apostle of truth and the inspired prophet of a higher and better humanity. At the risk of being accused of sentiment, I, a plain business man, feel that I ought to have the courage to-day to speak in your presence my appreciation of woman and her work for our common humanity, and especially for the protection of children.

As a convention, you are necessarily dealing with questions regarding adult pauperism and crime. Since the days of Howard to the present day, questions of prison reform, the reformation of prisoners, etc., have mainly been discussed in similar conventions. In 1870, in the National Prison Congress in Cincinnati, under the leadership of the able and lamented Dr. Wines, there were adopted thirty-seven conclusions, only one of which referred to preventive work, and that principally to the vagrant class of children. In 1876, at a session of the same Congress in New York, the subject was presented in one

address, but received little attention; though a radical resolution regarding child-saving was sent in by the President of this Conference, Mr. Letchworth, and unanimously adopted. Preventive work for children has attracted much attention in this country for the last few years, and considerably so outside of those connected with penal institutions. It has had a better fate abroad. There it has assumed vast proportions. The "*Société Générale des Prisons*" of France has been much occupied by discussing it. The best statesmen in France and England, private citizens, and titled persons are devoted to the work. There has been, in fact, all over the world in the past decade a great awakening to the necessity of saving children before they become chronic paupers or criminals. It is not my place here to show the necessity of better methods regarding this question. That is admitted by all intelligent persons. It is conceded that from neglected childhood comes the most of our poverty and crime. We all know how the cruelties of intemperance to children blight and destroy child-life and crush out what is fresh and pure forever. We know that the history of abandoned and ill-treated children forms the saddest pages in the history of the human race, and needs no repetition here. Intelligent men and women have already drawn the line between poverty and crime; and legislatures have said by law that the dependent, not criminal, child must have first and separate attention.

There is to-day a new crusade for the rescue of children. It has no single Peter the Hermit to advocate the cause. There are hundreds and thousands in this and other countries espousing it, confident that, like Peter the Hermit, they yet may preach their sermon of exultation and triumph from their Mount of Olives.

I can only speak here of some of the most important movements in preventive work in this country. The most radical step is by the State of Michigan, which in 1871 established the State Public School for Dependent Children, the first ever organized by any government, whereby the State becomes the guardian during minority of all children admitted into the institution, their temporary home, places them as soon as may be in an approved family during minority, securing their education and treatment as members of the family, and through supervision secures the performance of the contract. Said the venerable and distinguished Dronin De Lhuys before the French Institute, "Behold, gentlemen, the State of Michigan,—only about forty years old, has the merit of being in advance of ancient Europe in the inauguration of a new era for dependent children."

Last winter, Rhode Island enacted a law similar to ours, the text of the act being largely the same. As Prof. Foster will describe the Michigan method, I will not enlarge on the subject here. Within this decade, the State of New York, through the influence of Mr. Letchworth, enacted a righteous and radical law, excluding the children from the poorhouses. In 1881, the State of Michigan placed a similar law on her statute-books. Pennsylvania soon followed, the act taking effect Jan. 1, 1884.

I take pleasure in calling attention to the Michigan laws "for the protection of children" and "for the treatment of dependent children in the State Hospital," both radical, and the latter, I presume, a new step in legislation for children. All these mark a great advance in the intelligent humanity of the age, in which we recognize, as business men, that the economies and humanities are intimately connected. There have been in some States county or district temporary educational homes established for dependent children, and placing them out on indenture in homes. These are on the same principle as State institutions, though not always securing the efficient management that would be in State institutions. The reports from States in this Conference have showed much work done that cannot be referred to here. We may rest assured that in this country, where began the greatest movements of modern times, under the efforts of the revered and able Dr. E. C. Wines, for the reformation of prisons,—that America, the land *par excellence* of reform, has scarcely begun the work of devising better methods for protecting and saving children, and that another decade will witness in this country an advance in the cause that will be worthy the country and the age.

Preventive work for abandoned, neglected, and ill-treated children has for years received large attention in Europe. The movement there may be called the children's *renaissance*. Whoever has read Mrs. Browning's "Cry of the Children," "Ginx's Baby," or Dickens' vivid pictures of the English poor will have had some correct impressions of the need of child-saving work in our mother country. Thirty years of organized work, however, in England for these children has been productive of remarkable results. The effect of certified schools and compulsory education has been very gratifying there. In 1854, the first certified schools were established. In 1882 there were in Great Britain 61 reformatory schools and 138 industrial schools, of which 6 were truant schools. The system is somewhat complex and confusing. Generally speaking, the reformatories are for delinquent children over ten years of age, and the industrial schools are

for those under fourteen who have committed a first offence or who are vagrants or dependants, or, being incorrigible, are sent to the schools by parents. In the report this year of the Royal Commissioners on Reformatory Schools, Lord Norton protests against this system, saying: "If these two kinds of schools are to be maintained, it is essential that each should be kept for its distinctive purpose. Moral mischief must ensue from a fictitious distinction of such institutions. The line should be plainly drawn for public recognition. But, in practice, the two have got to a great extent confused. Magistrates send to either indiscriminately, and further legislation has caused the two descriptions to overlap." He recommends a better classification, so that "industrial schools would cease to confuse vagrancy with crime, and to stigmatize mere outcast children as juvenile delinquents."

The system, however, is yet in a formative condition; and it will be gradually improved. Though complex and clumsy, part government and part private, yet no system can show the results this has for its over thirty years' operations. In the report referred to is found the following as to the effect of preventive work in reducing crime in England, and I quote it as conclusive proof of its beneficial operations:—

"3. The effect of the system of certified schools, established by these enactments, upon juvenile and adult crime has been, on the whole, very satisfactory. They are credited, we believe justly, with having broken up the gangs of young criminals in the larger towns, with putting an end to the training of boys as professional thieves, and with rescuing children fallen into crime from becoming habitual or hardened offenders; while they have undoubtedly had the effect of preventing large numbers of children from entering a career of crime. These conclusions are confirmed by statistics of the juvenile commitments to prison in England and Wales since 1856, two years after the passage of the English Reformatory Act and one year before the first Industrial School Act. In 1856, the number of these commitments was 13,981; in 1866, 9,356; in 1876, 7,138. Since then, the number has gradually decreased, and had fallen in 1881 to 5,483. Before these schools came into operation, it is beyond doubt that a large portion of adult criminals of the worst classes consisted of those who in their childhood had been neglected or abandoned or trained to a career of crime."

Following this are the statistics showing that, "whereas in the quinquennial period, 1855 to 1859, one sentence of penal servitude was inflicted to every 7,438 of the population, the proportion steadily decreased, until in the year 1881 there was only one sentence to every 17,028."

The magnitude of this English work can be shown briefly by these figures: The total number of young offenders received into and discharged from certified reformatories in Great Britain to December, 1881, was 40,329. The expenses for 1882 were £134,204 9s. 9d., divided as follows: by the government, £87,241 12s. 4d.; by the parents, £5,818 8s. 2d.; by rates, £23,710 13s. 7d.; by subscriptions and legacies, £5,956 6s. 3d. The number in reformatories that year, exclusive of those out on license, was 6,601.

In the industrial schools, in 1882, there were 17,614 children. The expenditures that year were £338,200 8s., divided as follows: by the government, £170,472 19s. 6d.; parents and parochial boards, £16,993 7s. 9d.; by rates, £42,726 10s. 6d.; by the school boards, £59,583 16s. 5d.; and by subscriptions, £30,918 10s. 1d. This makes a total expenditure for 1882 in these schools in Great Britain of about \$2,362,000. And all this is exclusive of the general school system of that country, including its compulsory educational methods. Sir Charles Reed, before the London School Board of Compulsory Education in 1878, said, "The acknowledged diminution of juvenile crime in the metropolis . . . may be fairly traced, in part, to our withdrawal of so many children from our streets." These facts are given here to show how encouraging is this preventive work. It has closed many prisons in England, and must diminish the prison population wherever there is zealous and practicable work in preventing children from going in the way of chronic dependency and crime.

I cannot review child-saving work in even the most important countries. But I cannot forbear saying a few words regarding the efforts of France in that direction. There is always in France such a charming enthusiasm, coupled with most searching investigation, that we are fairly constrained to observe what that country says and does. Within the past year, I have received from the distinguished Senator Roussel the report of the commission of which he was chairman, to the French Senate, touching abandoned, neglected, and ill-treated children. The report comprises three large quarto volumes, describing the various institutions for children in his country and also in several foreign ones. The facts regarding France are surprising. It shows that there are 1,110 institutions for children. Of these, 103 are supported by the government, 518 by private charity only, while 290 are recognized by decree. In Paris there are 184 children's charities, 136 for girls and 18 for boys, 5 for both boys and girls. For delinquent children there are 25 orphanages and 50 houses of refuge. In France, in their various institutions there are 31,668 girls

and 8,367 boys. In 1883, January 1, there were in France 132,121 children who were under the control of the department of Public Assistance. The total cost of their support in 1883 was \$3,000,000. A large part of this fund comes from donations, legacies, and assessments on parents; while a smaller part is paid by the State. In Paris there are 15,000 children attending school at public expense, and 28,000 are under the supervision of benevolent persons.

The Société Générale for the Protection of Children is one of the latest, and has done a grand work. The president is M. Bonjean.

But the most remarkable work in France is the bill for the protection of abandoned, neglected, and ill-treated children, which has lately passed the Senate, and will come before the Deputies at the next session. It is in many respects the most logical, appropriate, and systematic measure that has ever been before any legislature.

The first sentence is a declaration of principle by the government that is new and gratifying:—

“Art. 1. Every minor of either sex, who is abandoned, neglected, or ill-treated, is under the protection of public authority.”

I know of no grander sentence penned by man since the days of inspiration. It should stand at the head of every statute-book throughout civilization. Let every government say that officially, and cordially and earnestly support it with measures that will secure this principle efficient operation, and we shall usher in a new era indeed in the saving of children.

This bill covers some thirty pages. I cannot even give a synopsis of it here. It is very full in its provisions. To deprive the parent of its control over the child, there must be a judicial examination. If a private orphan asylum would receive a child, there must be such a judicial disposition of the case. This is new and right. It undertakes, by placing in families or institutions, to secure education and good treatment for all ill-used, abandoned, or neglected children, and in a country that has more of these classes than perhaps any other. Its provisions have been often and thoroughly discussed in the debates of the Société Générale des Prisons. It has been long and fully considered in the Senate, where it has been passed; and the prospects are good for its adoption by the Deputies.

From a letter written me by Senator Roussel, regarding this measure, I quote as follows:—

“There is little I can say regarding this measure beyond what is in my voluminous report, which you already have, for two reasons: first, because the Senate, in voting on the bill as submitted, has changed

nothing; and, secondly, because this bill, voted by the Senate, has not been acted on by the Chamber of Deputies, but will be in a short time,— for the excellent report of M. Gerrille-Réache was printed in June last, and is on the order for the day the next session. I will add that the Commission of the Chamber of Deputies, of which M. Gerrille-Réache is the reporter, has changed very little of the text voted by the Senate, so that it seems probable that the bill, as printed in my report, will, with very little change, become law."

We receive this encouraging information with satisfaction, hoping the day will soon come when France, in many respects, will occupy the most advanced position before the world in saving children from poverty and crime. We hope soon to hear France proclaim officially:—

"Art 1. Every minor of either sex, who is abandoned, neglected, or ill-treated, is under the protection of public authority."

I congratulate you upon the interesting programme for this the Children's Day. I regret that the papers cannot be read in full. There must be some time for discussions which are necessary and valuable.

I trust that these papers and discussions will awaken a new interest in this country, and will result in securing the adoption of the best methods in every State for protecting children and securing to them respectable, self-supporting citizenship.

Working to that end, in the portals of a new era for neglected, abandoned, and ill-used children, may we see before long on the statute-books of each State of this country that "all such children are under the protection of public authority"!

AUXILIARY VISITORS.

VOLUNTEER VISITING OF STATE WARDS IN CONNECTION WITH
OFFICIAL WORK.

BY ELIZABETH C. PUTNAM,

AUXILIARY VISITOR OF SUFFOLK COUNTY, AND TRUSTEE STATE PRIMARY AND
REFORM SCHOOL, MASSACHUSETTS.

The superintendent of the department of the Massachusetts State Charities, which has charge of seeking homes for State wards and visiting them when placed, after his first six weeks' experience of the work, said frankly, "We men cannot cope with this work, and we want the help of women." Our plan for volunteer visitors had already been suggested. The superintendent, Mr. S. C. Wrightington, had taken the responsibility of recommending it to the State Board of Health, Lunacy, and Charity; and in September, 1879, it voted to avail itself of the services of fifty women, if such could be found, to act as visitors to the girls committed to the custody of that board or coming under its visitation when placed out from the State Primary School or from the State Industrial School.

In order to make a beginning, Mr. Wrightington requested five women who were ready to forward the undertaking to propose names of others. These visitors were carefully chosen. Two have died, several have been married, a few others have resigned; but most of them have held on to the end of this our fifth year.* There are now eighty-two auxiliary visitors commissioned and at work, each in her own district more or less near her home. We cannot claim perfect work. There has been lack of punctuality in making reports to the office. There has been occasional delay in visiting. There has been also an unexpected difficulty arising from occasional reluctance on the part of the visitor to report objectionable traits in a neighbor applying for a State ward to become a member of the household. With growing appreciation of the work on the part of the visitors, these defects are being overcome.

The excellences of this volunteer system have proved to be as follows: 1. The visitor, if properly chosen, is already firmly established in the respect and regard of the neighborhood. 2. The qualifications of the neighbors are either already known or readily ascertained by her. 3. She is within call and can attend to the small

* For details, see page 477 of the Report of the Conference held at Louisville in 1883.

beginnings of ill health or of misconduct. 4. She can warn the girls against unsafe companions, while encouraging proper friendships. The following instances will give an idea of the work which our visitors are carrying out each in her own way.

One has made ninety-two visits (not nearly all of them recorded at the office) within the past nine months. Finding a German girl, in a furious temper, threatening to throw the bedding out of the window of the room in which she was locked, the visitor by degrees brought her to her senses, and then spent the night, sharing the girl's room till she could restore order and remove her properly.

Another writes to the superintendent that Josephine has fallen into doubtful company and should be removed. Indignant, homesick, apparently perverse, the girl is sent to another district, where another visitor takes her in hand, and, after several months, only asks to be allowed to give some reward for Josephine's continued good behavior. Susan changes her place four times; the assistant visitor wins her heart, and the girl is now steadily earning good pay in a position of some responsibility. A girl committed for highway robbery, or nearly that, at twelve years of age, again steals, and loses place after place, but is now earning \$2.50 per week, and can be trusted by the assistant visitor, who has studied her with care. Another often troubled her visitor by her restlessness, and once exclaimed, "Why was I born with aims, if I am never to be able to gratify them?" Her development is most satisfactory.

Your honorable President mentioned at last year's Conference of Charities that a paper by Col. Tufts upon the Massachusetts method of dealing with juvenile delinquents had attracted much attention in England.

Again, before the Reformatories and Industrial School Commissioners, Mr. Joseph Sturge, of Stoke, England, an expert in reformatory work, made the following clear statement. The question was asked of him, "You have, I think, specially inquired into the system adopted in the State of Massachusetts with respect to dealing with juvenile offenders?" He replied: "I took some pains to inquire into it. In the first place, if there is a charge brought against any child, before the case is sent before a magistrate it is referred to the State department. I watched one case in which a negro girl about eleven years old, I should think, had been charged by her mother with disobedience, and the State agent had been around to inquire into the circumstances, first of all. He cross-examined the mother and the two sisters and the girl, and found out that she had been at

four different situations within a few months and had lost all of them, being evidently an unmanageable girl. He heard all that the girl had to say and all that the sisters had to say and that the mother had to say, separately. Then he pretty much made up his mind as to the best way of dealing with the case. Then he went into court; and the case was tried in the usual way by the magistrate, and the magistrate was guided very much by the State agent's advice. He committed the child to the care of the State, not to an industrial school, for the remainder of her minority; and the State department became responsible for her. They would take her away into Boston, and a place would be found for her, and she would be looked after by the State agent or by ladies who look after the girls; and if, after she had been tried, she was not found satisfactory, she would be committed to an industrial school."

Not only is the young offender met at the court by the appointed State agent: if necessary, this agent asks to have the case continued for a day or two, in order to gain more light upon it; and, occasionally, he brings the girl herself to the State House while the case is pending, in order that the superintendent and one of the auxiliary visitors may talk with her and give advice.

When the case is again before the court, the judge or trial justice asks for the opinion of the State agent; and, if the latter can show cause why the boy or girl should not be sent to a reformatory school, the court may commit such child to the custody of the State Board of Health, Lunacy, and Charity during minority, as in the instance mentioned by Mr. Sturge, authority being expressly given on the mittimus to transfer to the reformatory school, if unmanageable.

Thus, the classification so much desired is actually begun at the court. The young offender knows that all about her are taking pains to understand and deal justly by her. Moreover, she knows that good behavior on probation will virtually insure her her freedom from any irksome restraint. From four to eight boys per year have been thus committed by the State Board to the Reform School, and about the same number of girls to the State Industrial School. Only one boy thus taken into custody of the board was found to be in any *penal* institution last year. Commitment to the reformatory schools during minority is virtually "an indeterminate sentence," so surely will good behavior there restore the offender to probation outside. On the other hand, very serious misconduct while on probation has, during the past five years, brought nineteen Industrial School girls into the Reformatory Prison for Women on petition of the trustees

of the schools; and boys who prove to be unfit subjects for the Lyman School may henceforth be transferred to the Massachusetts Reformatory.

The Reformatories and Industrial Schools Commissioners, above mentioned, have just published their report with minutes of evidence, (a most interesting British blue-book). They recommend that authority be given to the board of guardians similar to that now vested in our State Board, and recommend extension of guardianship by reform and industrial schools to eighteen years of age and in certain cases to twenty-one years,—not to be used to prolong the stay in the institution, but simply to give a power of revocation. This is the system of guardianship during minority, allowing probation outside the schools, which is already established in our State, and which should not be altered, as is sometimes suggested.

Aside from the actual benefit of this control over the wards of the school, there is the advantage of being able to follow up and report upon their behavior up to twenty-one years, giving opportunity to test the results.

Mr. Arthur Renwick, president of the Children's Relief Society in New South Wales, under date of April, 1884, advises that all government institutions for the relief of destitute children should be placed under one management, adding that otherwise "jealousy and conflict, friction, hindrance, and divided councils are inevitable." There are, I believe, two ways in which these dangers may be avoided: first, by exercising mutual forbearance; second, by inviting the managers of institutions to take more or less part in the work of the other department also, thus dispelling whatever misunderstandings or jealousies might arise by securing an equal interest in keeping the children out of the institutions and in caring for them properly while under necessary restraint. Jealousy should have no place among the charities. Where there is jealousy there is duplication of work and waste of energy. Even differences of theory often vanish before a puzzling case, and the question whether to commit a girl to a reformatory or to give her another trial outside, calls for the best powers and most disinterested judgment of all concerned.

The visiting agency should provide homes for all who do not absolutely need the restraint of the schools. The schools should work with but one end in view; *i.e.*, to prepare their wards for life in the world outside. With the best system of reform school classification, of division into family homes, the double danger of weakening the sense of independence and increasing the knowledge of evil still

exists, and must exist wherever wrong-doers are brought together. They must be dealt with individually and separately, if it can be done. So thoroughly has this theory been put into practice within the last few years that our reformatories would have been very nearly depopulated, had it not been for the sad necessity of recalling those who failed to make good use of their probation and of receiving an increasing number from the courts. If this increase in the number of commitments shows an increase of vice, it is greatly to be regretted. If it is a sign that the work of the schools is felt to be of value in the communities whence these boys and girls have been committed, there is encouragement for trustees, superintendents, and visitors.

There are two departments of this work where it has been found desirable to employ salaried women visitors.* One is at the centre, at the State House, where girls must be brought from the trains on their way to or from a place; where they must often be temporarily provided for and set in order physically and morally; where also a girl taken from the court may receive a kind welcome, and not unfrequently more or less outfit for a place. A house of detention is greatly needed for such cases. The other is in seeking homes for young children for whom board is to be paid.

The work of Mrs. Leonard in Hampden County is well known. A year before the State adopted the plan, she prevailed on the authorities to give up building a new wing on the county almshouse, instead of which the city pays from \$1 to \$1.50† for boarding in private families the children who would otherwise have occupied the proposed new wing.

Besides the infants at board from the Massachusetts Infant Asylum and in charge of the department of Out-door Poor, 105 children over three years of age are now boarded out by the State Board and by the trustees at \$1.50 per week, with outfit and allowance for clothing, making the per capita cost \$2.05, which sum also includes transportation and medical attendance, but does not include the expenses of the salaried visitor above mentioned, whom it has been thought necessary to employ, at least while initiating the experiment.

If these children are boarded at an early age in country families where, by the time the payment is withdrawn, they may find permanent homes free of expense, they will by that time have acquired a practical knowledge of the kinds of work by which they are likely

* The boys over ten years are visited only by salaried agents,—men.

† \$2 or \$2.50 for young infants.

to have to begin to earn their living, while schooling is secured to them with other children of the neighborhood, giving them an equal chance in the world.

While it is claimed that in many instances children of the unfortunate classes have proved satisfactory when brought up as adopted children by persons of ample wealth and higher station, it has been observed that too often children thus adopted are complained of as they grow up as unworthy of and ungrateful for the benefits bestowed upon them. Where this is the case, the question arises whether those guardians are not to blame who tried the experiment of transplanting such children from the humble conditions under which they were born into those for which they were not by nature fitted. Had these very children been reared among plain, hard-working people, they might have found the discipline of hardships necessary to bring out their powers. A child with a respectable inheritance of energy and industry might thrive under any reasonably favorable conditions, but those who inherit sluggishness of mind and body from their pauper parents cannot too early be taught to rely upon their own exertions. In many cases, our natural teachers, cold and hunger, are needed to rouse them to effort.

The historian, Lecky, states that, during the decline of the Roman Empire, the poor of Rome became so demoralized by the amount of charity bestowed that they, to a great extent, ceased to work, and their children were provided for in increasing numbers in charitable asylums.

The sturdy Scotch have pursued an opposite system. Recognizing the fact that a poor man will be much more easily tempted to set aside his responsibility and surrender his children to be brought up in an institution than to be placed in other families of a station like his own, they have adopted the plan of refusing out-door relief, except in extreme cases, offering, instead, to save the parents part of the expense of maintaining their family by taking one or two of their children and placing them out on farms in the country, under close supervision. They have thus provided also for orphans and for children of persons of bad character who would bring them up to be a pest to society.

Since 1845, more than five thousand children have thus been boarded out in families of worthy farmers, mechanics, or trades people, at a cost of four shillings per week for an average healthy child, free of payment as the child becomes of use in the household or so well beloved as to be legally adopted. It was stated by Mr.

Greig that, of fourteen hundred such children who had come under his cognizance during the past twenty years, four hundred had been taken by relatives, while satisfactory accounts had thus far been received of all but ten of the remaining thousand. Miss Joanna M. Hill also gave most interesting testimony before the commissioners as well as in her published report on this subject.

Mr. Greig, before the commissioners, explained that the persons who take these children sometimes have families of their own; that the board prefers to have families where there is an income coming in apart from the boarding allowance. He quotes the statement made by the Leeds Board of Guardians, after going round two districts with him, as follows: "I think we could pick out the cottages where Mr. Greig has children, because they appear to be all most respectable cottages." They may get 1s. 6d. profit off three children. They get little or no labor, for the children are strictly sent to school. If the visitor goes over the school register and finds children absent from school, he must get the reason; and, if there is not satisfactory reason, the "nurse" would be smartly dealt with. They get nothing out of their labor except for going messages. The girls may assist in household duties, and the boys may do anything they desire in vacation. One boy, ten or eleven years of age, had been with his mother, a tramp and a thief. He was placed with a "nurse," but he would not remain in the house. He would sleep in holes all night, by the side of a river that flowed past the village; and the nurse got disheartened, and said she could not be responsible for him. He was then placed in Fifeshire, a little inland, where he could not easily get away; and the man that he was sent to there bought a pair of rabbits for him one day in the market, and the boy took such an interest in the rabbits that he never thought of leaving the place.

From a return * presented to Parliament in regard to English workhouses and workhouse schools, it appears that in an average of ten years there returned to the workhouse: males, fourteen per cent.; females, twenty-six per cent. While a return extending over a period of seventeen years, from the city parish in Glasgow, where boarding out was in force, gives the results as follows: number who turned out bad or doubtful characters, males, under four per cent.; females, under five per cent.; while ninety-one per cent. of the whole 923 were known to be doing well. It is said that the Liverpool Guardians are already saving £1,700 per year by boarding these children out, not to speak of the ultimate benefits in this direction.

* Reformatories and Industrial Schools Commissions, p. 400.

The mortality of orphan and deserted children in Irish workhouses had become fearful : in some places, one hundred per cent. died. The effect of boarding out on the death-rate was marvellous. At Cork, a return dated April, 1883, shows that, subsequent to the adoption of the boarding-out system, of 824 children thus placed in families during twenty-one years, only 32 had died, or about six per cent. per annum. The number of children now reported as boarding out in Ireland is 2,411 from one hundred Unions. One of the orphan societies in Dublin, with its many provincial branches, has practised this system for nearly sixty years, at a yearly cost of under £11 per capita. This society has brought up and successfully launched in the world more than thirteen thousand children, and has nearly three thousand boarded out at the present time. The annual death-rate is below one per cent. The report states, "Voluntary management and wise regulations closely adhered to have brought these results."

In South Australia, New South Wales, and Tasmania, this system of boarding out, either at moderate cost or free of expense, has been successfully carried on for the past fifteen years. Mr. Thomas S. Reed, chairman of the Destitute Board of Adelaide, South Australia, has within the past year made the following statement :—

"I cannot conclude this branch of the evidence without giving prominence to one special element conducing to the success of this movement from its commencement up to the present time, arising from the earnest and valuable efforts of the Boarding-out Society. This society was formed at the beginning of the movement, in order to insure more direct and local visitation of the children by ladies residing in the neighborhood of their homes, and visitations independent altogether of those made from official sources. I feel that it is specially due to those ladies who have so ably and with such unwearied effort carried on the executive work of this society, and to those lady visitors who have devoted such care and attention to their labors, that this sincere acknowledgment should be recorded in evidence. To the exertions of this society and their hearty co-operation with the board, much of the success of this work is to be attributed."

There are many young women, many women of mature judgment and with experience of life, who would gladly devote time and energy to the service of the needy in body or mind ; yet such willing work is often undertaken at a disadvantage for want of wise organization. It is the thorough organization that exists in the different sisterhoods that goes far to make it possible to turn to advantage the various talents of ardent young workers who would often stumble and work

unwisely without such guidance. These young persons little know what valuable assistance they could bring to bear on this peculiar and troublesome branch of the State Charities, nor how essential the work of the volunteer visitors has come to be regarded in Massachusetts.

NOTE.—I have not yet been able to ascertain whether, in the statistics on page 8, all the pauper children, of whatever age or condition of health, are included, or whether feeble and sickly children are provided for in almshouses or in "cottage homes," as in Australia.

TEN YEARS OF CHILD-SAVING WORK IN MICHIGAN.*

BY JOHN N. FOSTER,

SUPERINTENDENT OF THE STATE PUBLIC SCHOOL.

I stand to-day with uncovered head and unsandalled feet in the presence of you veteran laborers in behalf of better methods in all good work.

I come only to tell the story of our work. Faulty and imperfect as it is, its plan is so in accord with the spirit of your desires, as I understand them, that I have consented to outline before this Conference its design and results.

The children to be cared for in the State Public School of Michigan were to be such children as were found in the poorhouses of the State and as are still found in poorhouses in such States as have made no other provision for poor children: many as bright and lovable as are found in any home; many others with inherited tendencies and acquired habits which made necessary special training and thorough discipline, if they were ever to be saved; while, for some, divine grace seemed the only hope for a better life. I quote from the report of the State Board of Charities and Corrections of Michigan for the year in which the school opened:—

“In regard to the condition of the children,” it said, “the most of them grow up entirely without education. Those who have the capacity to learn, and may attend the district schools in their vicinity, meet with obstructions and mortifications sufficient to deter them altogether from instruction, or to reduce their acquirements to so low a standard as hardly to be an offset for the damage sustained in having their little hearts wounded by the taunts of wayward but more fortunate children, who cannot fail to remind them of their more destitute condition. In one of the county-houses, three small children were found in a desolate room, one perishing with fever sore, the other two taking care of the sick one,—little angels of mercy working in the mire. Death seemed to be of the party, and the little drama should have its lesson.”

To attempt to train children in such places was worse than useless; and it remained for Michigan to decide what provision she would

* This paper, on account of its great length, has been somewhat abridged in printing; but it is believed that nothing material has been omitted. The paper, in its unabridged form, can be obtained from the author, Mr. Foster, Coldwater, Mich.

make for the three hundred then in such places, who were good subjects for a true training school. And, without waiting to ascertain if some other State would not at some future time develop a system more perfect, she at once determined upon a course which would remove every worthy, capable child from surroundings which could only degrade, and place it under influences which should elevate and ennoble.

Children are received into this school, not because they are bad and need restraint, not because they are wayward and criminal, but solely because they are not able to support themselves, and have no one to support them. We do not say to a poor child, hungry, naked, and abandoned, "Go and commit a crime, and we will then gladly receive you into our reformatory institutions, and care for you." But any child, dependent, either wholly or partially, upon the public for support, is admissible. They are formally received upon an order of the probate judge, setting forth the fact of their dependence, which must also be accompanied by a medical certificate stating that they are of sound mind and in good health.

The school is established upon the family plan, with about thirty children in each cottage, presided over by a Christian lady, who sustains to them the relation of a mother, and has much to do with the moral training and general management of the family. They all go to a common dining-room, where the cottage manager attends to them at the table, devoting all her time to their needs.

Five hours each day are devoted to school-work proper, having a graded school of five departments, to which in a short time will be added a kindergarten for the younger ones.

The children have regularly assigned tasks,—from the little ones, five years of age, who assist in dressing those younger than themselves, to the oldest boys, who work on the farm and in the garden. Knitting, sewing, telegraphy, work in the dining-room and kitchen, general cleaning, bed-making, and sweeping are all done by the children, so far as they are able. Some deformed ones have been received and taught telegraphy, so they are not only self-supporting, but are securing large salaries.

At the institution, all holidays are observed. And, on Sundays, the children assemble in the morning for an hour in chapel, where a teacher reads to them, sings with them, and pleasantly and profitably passes the time. In the afternoon, the regular Sunday-school is held, and the International Lessons are taught, as to millions of other children throughout the entire country.

The present capacity of the school is three hundred and thirty; and although in 1874 it opened with room for but one hundred and fifty, with three hundred seeking admission, during the past year every dependent child of Michigan, needing its care, has been received.

Under the laws of Michigan, the governor may appoint an agent of the State Board of Charities and Corrections, who, besides having the care of juvenile offenders, is required to seek homes for the children of the State School, and investigate all applications for children. And no child can be placed in a home in any county, unless the county agent shall certify that the applicant is a proper person to have the care and training of such child; that he has a good home, is a person of good moral character, is temperate, does not sell intoxicating liquors as a beverage; and that he believes he will provide for and educate the child, and otherwise faithfully execute the contract of indenture.

Having an application thus approved, a child may be taken from the school. When so taken, the superintendent, in behalf of the board of control, enters into a contract of indenture, requiring proper clothing and food, attendance at school, opportunity to attend public religious worship, and at majority to pay for the benefit of the child a specified sum of money, or a *pro rata* amount for the time of indenture, provided he does not remain the full time.

The contract may be annulled by the board of control, whenever the best interests of the child require it. The contract does not become operative until the expiration of sixty days, giving a period of trial. So it will be seen that the first steps are taken carefully. The child is not placed in a home, and investigations made afterwards, but the most careful, painstaking methods adopted to prevent its being placed in an improper home; and many applications in all sections of the State are rejected.

Since the opening of the school in May, 1874, to the close of the year ending Sept. 30, 1884, there had been received into the school 1,672 children. Of these, 349 were under six years of age, 604 from six to nine, 561 from nine to twelve, and 158 were over twelve years of age. About seventy per cent. were from three to ten years of age, a period of great helplessness, and needing, if ever, the watchful care of their true parents, the State, or such adopted parents as could be provided. 1,120 were boys and 552 girls; 1,602 were white, 60 black, and 10 Indians; 182 were orphans, 647 were half-orphans, and 843 had both parents living; 702 came from poorhouses.

The guardianship of the board of control ceases whenever the child becomes of age, is adopted by order of the probate court, dies, is returned to its county, or when a girl is married, so that all these children remain wards of the State until one of these circumstances occurs.

September 30 last, the record stood as follows : —

Whole number received,	1,672
Returned to counties,	209
Died,	58
Adopted,	95
Became of age,	68
Married,	14
On trial,	56
In homes,	894
In the school,	278

The history of the 209 returned to their counties is varied. Many of them were unfit subjects for the school,—diseased, crippled, some criminal, others without sufficient mental force to be trained into anything that would justify their being placed in homes. Others were returned as a mere formality, having already become self-supporting and no longer needing the care or guardianship of the State. Of this number, I gather the following information : 51 are still in county houses, unfit for homes and incapable of self-support, on account of being either diseased or feeble-minded ; 34 are in the penal institutions of Michigan and other States ; 115 are self-supporting young men and women, caring for themselves, so that they are no longer a burden either upon their counties or the State ; 4 have died and are beyond the need of human care ; 5 are known to be leading abandoned lives.

Of the whole number, 58 have passed beyond the need of care from either the State or the best homes possible to provide, and are now, we trust, sheltered in the arms and made happy in the love of our heavenly Father, who cares for them, and has long since "wiped away all tears from their eyes."

Of the 95 adopted, all but two are well situated and doing well. Some have come into possession of property, others are doing the same as other children in the average homes of an intelligent State.

The 14 girls who are married are as well situated as are generally the wives of laboring men, and those visited seemed very happy. One was a wild, rude girl a few years ago, reckless and almost hope-

lessly a street girl. Her mother having died since her marriage, she has taken a younger brother and sister, and cares for them in her own home as a true mother.

Of the 68 who have become of age, all are self-supporting and doing well. Fifty-six are now in homes on trial, and most of them will remain to be fully indentured.

Homes that have not been accounted for in the preceding pages, have been found for 894 children, and much interest centres in the result of this work. The institution having been founded for the express purpose of placing children in homes and properly looking after them when so placed, the management of it, believing the original idea to be the true one, has constantly sought to perfect this department of its work, and ascertain the practicability of placing them in homes sufficiently fast to keep the size of the school within reasonable bounds.

We have tried not to forget that such institutions are established, because, by circumstances over which the inmates have no control, their home life has been destroyed. They are, by force of these circumstances, out of their normal condition; and the sooner they can be restored to that condition, or most nearly so, the better for the child.

It is urged, many times, that the homes in which children are placed may be bad ones, that the guardians only desire the children for servants, that they will not send them to school, that they may not properly clothe them, that they may not be taught properly to observe the Sabbath, and that many other things may not be right. True, such dangers beset the work, and render it highly important that there should be a reserve power in the contract of indenture, by which the board may at once remove the child from such a home. For this, the law wisely provides; and we exercise that power, whenever such cases are known. The important thing is to have such efficient supervision and watchfulness over each child that we may constantly have knowledge of such homes, and remove the child at once.

To place children in homes without constantly looking after their welfare, and knowing what their condition is, is barbarism wholly unworthy this Christian age.

It seems to me we will do well to remember that in most States the laws make it easy for children to find entrance to institutions: indeed, it is not at all uncommon for parents even to seek to impose upon the State the responsibility for the care and training of children

which ought to be properly done at home. And, instead of seeking to multiply institutions or enlarge those already existing, we should strive to lessen these burdens upon the people, and reduce the number of public dependents to a minimum; having in view constantly, of course, the real good of the child.

The following statements are the results of the most careful and thorough visits to the children, or in their neighborhood, by myself or the county agent; and, in a majority of cases, three reports have been received,—one from the guardian, one from the county agent, and one the result of my own visits,—all of these since the first of last January. Six hundred and eighty-five are now in homes on indenture. Of these, five hundred and eighty are doing well, giving satisfaction, and constitute parts of so many families, in the family sense. Eighty are not doing so well,—are doing fairly well,—are somewhat discontented and lack interest, but are still remaining in their homes; and most of them will stay, grow better, and become adjusted to their home relations. Twenty-five are still in the homes in which they were placed, but are doing poorly. One hundred and ninety-one are in homes, not on indenture. They have either left the parties to whom they were indentured, and are self-supporting in the neighborhood, or are with their own parents or other relatives, whose improved circumstances enable them to care for their children. Many of those who have left guardians have done so by consent, and the most pleasant relations exist. Some have even paid for their time until of age. Of these, one hundred and sixty are doing well, eighteen fairly well, and thirteen poorly.

Eighteen have not been heard from during the past year. Of these, ten have gone with guardians out of the State, and their residence is unknown; but, at last reports, they were doing well. Six had left guardians, and nothing is known of them; but, at last reports, they were doing badly. The other two were doing well when last heard from.

As mentioned before, in case of children returned to counties, adopted, died, married, or become of age, the guardianship of the school ceases. There have been four hundred and forty-four such cases. Of these, ninety-two are either leading criminal lives, or being supported by the county in which they live, or are living abandoned and vile lives. Four are dead; and the remaining three hundred and forty-eight are either self-supporting or in homes being cared for, no longer burdens upon the public.

The other children gone from the school are distributed as follows :

Present whereabouts and condition unknown,	18
In homes on indenture,	685
In homes not on indenture,	191
In homes on trial,	56
Total,	950

Making nine hundred and fifty wards of the school now in homes, of whom eight hundred and eight are doing well, ninety-eight fairly well, and forty-four are doing poorly.

One thousand three hundred and ninety-four children have left the school since its organization, of which number ninety-six are public dependants ; and twelve hundred and ninety-eight are either self-supporting or being cared for by self-supporting citizens, and are in no sense, either wholly or partially, dependent upon the public.

Of all the children who have gone from the school, but seven per cent. have become public charges ; while ninety-three per cent. have been saved from public dependence and very largely from perpetuating pauper and criminal classes.

Is it unsafe to assume that these figures would have been reversed, had these children been left uncared for by the State ?

It is interesting to note the growth of the work of placing children. The first full year of its history, sixty-nine children were placed out ; the second year, the same ; and not until the fifth year did the number reach one hundred. In 1880, one hundred and forty children were indentured, which was the largest number until the year just ended, when two hundred and twenty were indentured, forty-two were adopted, and fifty-six are now on trial, making three hundred and eighteen placed in homes during the past year ; or, while seventy-two per cent. more children were received during the past year than ever before in the history of the school, eighty-six per cent. more have been placed out by indenture and adoption than ever before, making it seem at present that the opportunity to place children in desirable homes exceeds the demand of needy children for the advantages of the school, which, if proven true for the next decade, will materially lessen the cost of maintaining dependent children in Michigan.

The question as to whether the children stay is frequently asked, and my only reply can be the history of our work so far.

The following statement will best present the subject : —

Number of children indentured once,	780
Number of children indentured twice,	247
Number of children indentured three times,	80
Number of children indentured four times,	26
Number of children indentured five times,	8
Number of children indentured six times,	5
Number of children indentured seven times,	1

Whole number indentured, 1,147

Sixty-eight per cent. of all children indentured have been indentured but once, and ninety per cent. have been indentured not exceeding twice. There are so many causes leading to a child's losing its home that one reindenture for each child might not count against it. The death of either the adopted father or mother would, in most cases, so change the family as to break up the home for the child. Domestic trouble arises sometimes, to destroy the home life. The return of married children to the homestead, with their own families, frequently results in the child not being wanted. In all these cases, it must either be left to care for itself or be taken back to the school, and in time reindentured. The policy of this school is to have none of its wards uncared for; and, no matter what the cause of return, it is made easy for the child to come to its "State home," when all others fail. Our object is to *save*, not *scatter*.

A child may be indentured more than twice, and still be blameless; but more frequent indentures show a troublesome child, and are a bad indication. But, with some experience in transferring and placing children, I feel like saying, "Never despair." There is a fitting niche for every divinely wrought statue, no matter how much soiled and bruised it may have been by its rough contact with life.

The system of supervision now in practice, by both county and State agents, contributes much, I think, toward preventing more frequent changes. The examination regarding the home before placing the child lays a good foundation. A visit, at least once each year, by the county agent keeps both guardian and ward assured that the rights and interests of each will be carefully guarded. And that interference of outside parties, so baleful in destroying harmonious relations between guardian and child, is less frequent in counties having the most careful supervision.

The work planned for the visiting agent is not with boys and girls in an institution surrounded with all the necessities of life, and watched on every side that they go not astray, but with the larger family of nearly twelve hundred boys and girls, placed, each one

under circumstances different from the others, all over a great State, living with other boys and girls, attending the public schools, working in the shops and houses, subjected to the same temptations that other children are, with the greater danger of being conscious that they are children of the State rather than of the adopted fathers and mothers with whom they live. It embodies gaining positive and full information regarding every child that has gone out; learning how it is treated in its home, and how doing, if caring for itself; reporting all cases of improper treatment, if any are found; encouraging both guardian and child; urging to greater patience and more faithful work; inspiring, if possible, with better motives those who are becoming wayward and restless under the restraints of indenture; meeting county officials, who have something to do with caring for the children, thus increasing acquaintance and kindling greater zeal in the work.

In addition to his duty as county visiting officer, the county agent attends to all cases of arrest of children in his county, and has advisory power similar to that imposed upon the State visiting agent in Massachusetts. The visiting agent of the State School is entirely untrammelled so far as the criminal class is concerned, and only deals with the wards of the school. This system of supervision, combining both local and State visitation, seems worthy of the consideration of our sister States.

I very much wish all could see these homes as I have seen them, and notice the patience of guardians with wayward children, many of whom never understood the nature of kindness in their home treatment, and always expected abuse instead of humanity, and had very early learned to distrust everybody; see also the kindly interest all the time felt in doing whatever would promote their welfare, and feeling a keen pain at every wrong act on the part of the child. Many also permit the child to exercise its judgment, when getting old enough to care for itself, and, if it wishes, work out among the farm neighbors, and be at home Sundays, and live as an own child would do under similar circumstances. I find our children in the high schools of the State, pursuing a classical course, preparing for the university, graduating in other high schools, and at once engaging in active work; others teaching, commanding the respect of the community and having a strong hold upon the affections of their pupils.

Young men as well, in machine shops, on the farms, and in other places of work. And, when their parents are inquired for, they do

not think to recall any but their adopted ones. These have made the only impressions that are lasting. Indeed, it has not been infrequent for children to ask me to be sure and not let their father or mother know their whereabouts, lest they might try to get them away.

In one public school lately, I found ten boys and girls, once inmates of the State School, all happy, and mingling with other boys and girls, seemingly as full of life and glee as any there, and occupying honorable places in their classes.

Some are more commonplace homes than those mentioned. Kind-hearted, well-meaning people, in comfortable circumstances, desiring a child to help "mind" the baby, run errands, prepare vegetables, etc., allow the children to go more carelessly dressed and not always as "clean of face" as might seem orthodox; yet they are trained in good ways, are sent to school, are treated in every way as members of the family in which they live, are taught to work, and are really in good homes, and, if adapted to the home, are more happy than they would have been in one of finer mould.

I regret to say that there are exceptions to both these classes. There are men and women without any apparent touch of humanity in their make-up. They take a child simply with reference to its commercial value. If it is strong and healthy, and can do a large amount of work, they count it a good one. They send it to school only as they must, to conform to the conditions of the indenture; and the general treatment is unjust and inhuman. Whenever such cases are found, the child is promptly and unconditionally removed.

There are, also, many persons taking children who mean well, but have long since forgotten that they were once children. Every childish carelessness or wrong act is greatly magnified; and the child soon becomes impressed with the idea that it is bad and cannot recover from the consequences of its conduct, so it goes on from bad to worse, until hopelessly lost.

Then some must necessarily be removed on account of "incompatibility of disposition." The child gets into the wrong home. Some other child would be well cared for; but the one selected creates an unpleasant impression, and the guardian never can see any good in it. And the child, after struggling for a while against an adverse fate, becomes discouraged, and is only too glad of a change. And not infrequently the second home proves entirely satisfactory to all parties.

Upon the whole, the great mass of guardians strive to advance the

best interests of the child and be patient with its faults, and have a personal interest in its welfare, even doing more than simply advancing its material interests, but tenderly loving it and making for it a true home.

Some children will fall by the wayside, notwithstanding home and food and love. The plant we move from native soil to a different clime withers and droops upon the way ; but careful watering, watching, fertilizing, and pruning give strength to root and branch, and ere long it yields to treatment, and, becoming accustomed to its new location, grows strong and gives beautiful blossoms to repay our care,—not the same, perhaps, as though trained in its natural soil, but still we find a special pleasure in its beauty, because we know its struggle for existence. So if we save the mass of little ones, and have them free from taint of crime, we feel we work in the way to well please Him who said, "Of such is the kingdom of heaven."

PLACING OUT CHILDREN IN THE WEST.

BY REV. HASTINGS H. HART,

SECRETARY OF THE STATE BOARD OF CORRECTIONS AND CHARITIES OF
MINNESOTA.

The previous speakers have described the methods of placing out and supervising children practised in Massachusetts and Michigan. I am to speak of the work of the most extensive and important children's charity in the United States; namely, that of the Children's Aid Society of New York City. As one branch of its work, it places in homes some 3,500 children annually. I have been asked by the chairman of the Committee on Child-saving work to present to the Conference the results of an inquiry into the placing of children in Minnesota under the auspices of this society.

Soon after its organization, a little more than a year ago, the attention of our board was drawn to the criticisms of the emigration work of the Children's Aid Society, which have arisen at intervals for several years past. Except a small number several years ago, Minnesota has received but 340 of these children, all within three years past. This is a comparatively insignificant number in a great State; but it appears that Michigan, Illinois, and Indiana have received 4,000, 5,000, and 6,000 respectively. Should Minnesota receive as many in proportion to her area as Michigan, she would have 6,000; if as many in proportion as Indiana, 15,000. Five counties in our State have received at the rate of one child for every ninety-three inhabitants. Even with our present sparse population, if the State were colonized at the same rate, it would give us over 10,000. In view of such possibilities, it became a question of vital importance whether the charges brought against this immigration were true. Gentlemen interested in public and private charities in various parts of the West and South have stated that many vicious and depraved children are sent out by the society; that they are hastily placed in homes without proper inquiry, and are often ill-used; that the society, having disposed of the children, leaves them to shift for themselves without further care; and that a large proportion turn out badly, swelling the ranks of pauperism and crime.

Examination of the records did not solve the question. The friends of the society and its critics seemed involved in hopeless contradiction, each party quoting many individual instances in support of their

opinions. It did not appear that any comprehensive inquiry had ever been made into the history of the children sent to any one State (at least, of late years). The nearest approach to it was an inquiry, made by agents of the society in Wisconsin in 1882, tracing about 100 out of 1,000 placed in that State. The question naturally arose, What about the other 900? When four or five thousand children are scattered in a State, they soon become so far absorbed in the body politic as to render complete statistics impossible. It was thought, however, that, with so small a number as we have in Minnesota (only 340, all received within three years), information might be gathered sufficiently full to yield valuable figures. The attempt has been made, with only partial success; yet it is hoped that the results are not valueless. Six of the seven counties receiving children were visited by the secretary about a year ago, and four have been revisited within the past few weeks. Lists of the children were obtained, careful inquiry was made as to each case, and a considerable number of the children were visited in their new homes. The results were carefully tabulated, after correspondence with the chairman and most active members of the local committees appointed by the society in the seven counties, and a full correspondence with Secretary Brace and Agent Mathews of the society.

The inquiry will be grouped under four heads:—

First. Is it true that many vicious and depraved children are sent out? A few such were found, but there is no evidence that their selection was intentional. Six are known to have committed offences against the laws, of whom I shall speak later. Nine have been sent back by the local committees as incorrigible; and, in such cases, the society has promptly taken charge of them, paying all expenses. Three or four depraved adults have come to the State under the auspices of the society.

Second. Are children hastily placed in homes without proper inquiry, and are they often ill-used? Some five or six cases of abuse are reported. The society has recently prosecuted one case and is reported to be about to prosecute another. A third case was prosecuted, I believe, by the boy himself. In two or three less glaring instances, the children were transferred to suitable homes. Some false stories of abuse have been traced back to gossips or jealous neighbors.

To the first count of this indictment, however,—namely, the hasty placing of children without proper investigation,—we fear that the

society must plead guilty. The plan is as follows: A representative of the society first visits the town where distribution is to be made, and secures three leading citizens to act as a volunteer committee, pass upon applications for children, and take general charge of the matter. A notice is published in local newspapers inviting applications and announcing the day of arrival and distribution. I was myself a witness of the distribution of forty children in Nobles County, Minnesota, by my honored friend, Agent James Mathews, who is a member of this Conference. The children arrived at about half-past three P.M., and were taken directly from the train to the court-house, where a large crowd was gathered. Mr. Mathews set the children, one by one, before the company, and, in his stentorian voice, gave a brief account of each. Applicants for children were then admitted in order behind the railing, and rapidly made their selections. Then, if the child gave assent, the bargain was concluded on the spot. It was a pathetic sight, not soon to be forgotten, to see those children and young people, weary, travel-stained, confused by the excitement and the unwonted surroundings, peering into those strange faces, and trying to choose wisely for themselves. And it was surprising how many happy selections were made under such circumstances. In a little more than three hours, nearly all of those forty children were disposed of. Some who had not previously applied selected children. There was little time for consultation, and refusal would be embarrassing; and I know that the committee consented to some assignments against their better judgment. There was similar speed in Freeborn, Rock, and Watonwan Counties, and, I presume, elsewhere. In Watonwan County, only six days intervened between the published notice and the arrival of the children, leaving no time for investigations by the committee. The committee usually consists of a minister, an editor, and a doctor, a lawyer or a business man. The merchant dislikes to offend a customer, or the doctor a patient; and the minister fears to have it thought that his refusal is because the applicant does not belong to his church. Thus, unsuitable applications sometimes succeed. Committee men and officers of the society alike complain of this difficulty. The evil is aggravated by the fact that, while the younger children are taken from motives of benevolence and uniformly well treated, the older ones are, in the majority of cases, taken from motives of profit, and are expected to earn their way from the start. The farmers in these counties are very poor. I speak within bounds, when I say that not one in five of those who have taken these children is what would be called, in Ohio or Illinois,

well-to-do. To my personal knowledge, some of them were taken by men who lived in shanties and could not clothe their own children decently. A little girl in Rock County was placed in a family living on a dirt floor in filth worthy of an Italian tenement house. A boy in Nobles County was taken by a family whose children had been clothed by ladies of my church, so that they could go to Sunday-school. I have seen other similar instances. Probably as many failures have resulted from unsuitable homes as from the fault of the children. We believe that the society should employ responsible, paid agents to investigate deliberately all applications beforehand.

Third. Does the society, having disposed of the children, leave them to shift for themselves, without farther care? No, not in Minnesota. The agents of the society have revisited the counties where children are placed,—most of them repeatedly. These trips, being hurried, have not permitted visits to all of the children, special attention being given to urgent cases. Cases of incorrigibility reported to the society have received prompt attention,—homes being changed or the child removed from the State, as seemed best. Letters of inquiry are sent by the society to the children and employer, and letters addressed to the society are promptly answered. Local committees were judiciously selected, and their (very small) bills of expenses incurred for children have been promptly paid. I am informed by Agent Mathews that the society employed a local agent in Rock County and vicinity during the past year, and paid him for his services.

This supervision is inadequate, for reasons which I will explain. The society expressly withholds guardianship from those taking children, itself retaining it except in a few cases of adoption. Mr. Mathews tells me that the society understands that the committees stand *in loco parentis*; but the committees have no legal guardianship, nor do they usually attempt to exercise it. To avoid mistakes, I quote from Secretary C. L. Brace's book, *The Dangerous Classes of New York*, p. 243: "The children are not indentured, but are free to leave, if ill-treated or dissatisfied; and the farmers can dismiss them, if they find them useless or otherwise unsuitable. This apparently loose arrangement," he adds, "has worked well." Mr. Brace said before this Conference in 1876 (see Proceedings, p. 139): "The employers agree to send the children to school, and, of course, to treat them kindly. Beyond this there is no agreement, and no indenture is made out. The relation is left much to the good feeling of both parties." Agent Trott, in the St. James (Minnesota)

Journal of Aug. 26, 1882, says: "Applicants are expected to treat the children as their own in the matter of schooling and training. Neither is bound by writing; and the society reserves the right to remove the child, at any time, for what may be considered a just cause." Under these conditions, the present system of supervision works well with young children and tractable older ones; but it fails with the restless and intractable, who need supervision. The employer gives no security for redeeming his promises, and may discharge the child without warning, "if found *useless* or otherwise unsatisfactory." A prosperous farmer in Watonwan County worked a boy all summer, and turned him out ragged just before winter, apparently to save his board. He found him "useless," and there was no remedy. Employers agree to "treat them as their own in the matter of schooling," but many do not send their own to school. On the other hand, "the children are free to leave, if ill-treated or dissatisfied." A bad boy is sure to become dissatisfied, and good boys often do; and most boys feel ill-treated the first time they are punished or even reprimanded. The result is that many boys, from ten to sixteen years old, in Minnesota, have exercised their privilege, and left. Sometimes, they come to the chairman of the local committee. He finds a new home, if possible. If not, he writes the society (the legal guardian) for instructions. But he cannot hold the boy, and often instructions come too late. Thirty per cent. of the children brought to Minnesota have gone from the vicinities where placed; and, of these, at least forty have drifted off and been lost sight of in less than three years, for lack of adequate supervision. The agents are efficient men, but they are not omnipresent. We believe that the society should have responsible, paid local agents, to whom legal guardianship should be given. Their duties should be similar to those of the county agents of Michigan.

Fourth. The crucial question is, Does "a large proportion turn out badly, swelling the ranks of pauperism and crime"? Here, I beg leave to submit the following table, showing the condition of the children in each county so far as ascertained:—

NEW YORK CHILDREN IN MINNESOTA.

County.	Age when brought.	Total number brought.	Number not reported.	Total number reported.	Remaining in vicinity where placed.	Gone from vicinity where placed.	Doing well.	No special complaint.	Doing badly.
Cottonwood,		22	2	20	15	5	14	1	1
Freeborn,		29	6	23	23	0	21	1	0
Fillmore,		12	8	4	3	1	1	1	2
Martin,		38	18	20	19	1	19	1	0
Nobles,		22	0	22	22	0	20	2	0
Rock,		31	7	24	21	3	18	1	4
Watsonwan,		17	0	17	13	4	8	4	2
Total,	1 to 12	171	41	130	116	14	101	11	9
Cottonwood,		14	4	10	4	6	4	1	3
Freeborn,		27	1	26	13	13	16	2	6
Fillmore,		13	5	8	4	4	3	2	3
Martin,		29	11	18	13	5	13	4	1
Nobles,		49	8	41	17	24	23	5	9
Rock,		23	6	17	14	3	9	2	5
Watsonwan,		14	0	14	5	9	2	6	5
Total,	13 to 21	169	35	134	70	64	70	22	32
Cottonwood,		36	6	30	19	11	18	2	4
Freeborn,		56	7	49	36	13	37	3	6
Fillmore,		25	13	12	7	5	4	3	5
Martin,		67	29	38	32	6	32	5	1
Nobles,		71	8	63	39	24	43	7	9
Rock,		54	13	41	35	6	27	3	9
Watsonwan,		31	0	31	18	13	10	10	7
Grand Total,	1 to 21	340	76	264	186	78	171	33	41

The number is almost equally divided between those under thirteen years of age when brought and those thirteen and over; and, in every county, a sharp dividing line separates them into two classes, as indicated in the following table:—

	Under thirteen.	Per cent.	Over thirteen.	Per cent.	All ages.	Per cent.
Total number reported,	130	100	134	100	264	100
Remaining in vicinity where placed,	116	90	70	52	186	70
Gone from vicinity,	14	10	64	48	78	30
Doing well,	101	78	70	52	171	65
No special complaint,	11	4	22	8	33	12½
Doing badly,	9	7	32	24	41	16

The following table shows the ages when brought, as nearly as can be ascertained :—

Age,	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Number received,	3	1	3	11	10	23	17	19	17	18	23

Age,	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	Over 21	All ages
Number received,	26	31	22	35	22	21	25	2	2	9	340

Care has been exercised not to report children as doing badly except for sufficient cause. The list of those doing well includes two boys whose employer works on Sundays in busy times; a boy of eleven who is kept at herding seven days in the week, and has never been sent to school; a boy whose employer took him to a saloon and treated him to beer to celebrate their new relation; another who shot a thieving tramp causing the loss of a leg; and a dozen or more of those who are reported as gone to New York or elsewhere, but whose conduct was good while they stayed. I have not reported as doing badly five children, whose mother, a dissolute variety actress, dragged them from their new homes in Cottonwood County and took them back to New York; nor five others whose parents claimed them in Watonwan County,—the whole family became a public charge and were finally sent back to New York by joint public and private charity.

Of those reported doing badly, six have committed offences against law. One is in the Reform School; a second is serving a three years' sentence in the State prison for a felonious attempt upon a little girl; a third was in jail thirty days for assault and battery; a fourth, twenty days for beating a little boy; a fifth stole small articles from his employer, and ran away; a sixth stole \$60, and ran away. Besides these, a boy was arrested with some tramps. Another served three years in the Reform School. He was one of those brought several years ago. As I have already said, nine have been returned to the society as incorrigible. A girl of twenty-three, partly deranged, was for a year a charity patient in St. Luke's Hospital, St. Paul. Five, with their parents, became a public charge in the city of Mankato. I estimate the cost to the public of the crime and pauperism above mentioned at about fifteen hundred dollars.

From our experience, we are positive in the opinion that children above the age of twelve years ought not to be sent west by the Children's Aid Society. In this opinion, I understand that the

officers of the society concur. Secretary Brace says (*Dangerous Classes of New York*, p. 245), "The emigration plan must be conducted with careful judgment, and be applied, so far as practicable, to children under, say, the age of fourteen years." If the society would adhere to this wise rule, we should have little cause for complaint.

Our examination shows, with reference to the children under thirteen years old, that nine-tenths remain, four-fifths are doing well, and all incorrigibles are cared for by the society. If properly placed and faithfully supervised, we are willing to take our full share of these younger children in Minnesota.

CHILD-SAVING

AS SHOWN IN SUMMER HOMES AND SANITARIA NEAR LARGE CITIES.

BY C. LORING BRACE.

One of the most beautiful expressions of humanity and sympathy in modern times is the gift by the more fortunate residents of town and country of a share in the best blessings of the summer—fresh air, sea bathing, and country food—to the children of the poor in large cities. The inequalities of life press terribly in summer on the lowest poor and working classes in our great towns. The poor of the country have comparatively their best time in the hot season. They can sleep in the open, they have food in abundance at that time of the year, and their labor is then in demand. Bathing, rambling, fishing, and summer pleasures are open to the children of the poorest. Life is comparatively easy to the poor man's family in the hot weather. But the reverse is true in the large cities. Much of the smaller kinds of work cease then to the women and children of the laboring classes. The labors of the "chorewoman," the laundress, and the chance work of wealthy families come to an end in summer. Houses are closed, families absent, or everything reduced to a very small scale. Many trades are almost at a standstill in the hot weather. Charities are curtailed, for the givers are away.

With means reduced, the families of the poor are exposed to unusual trials. They are confined to narrow, stifling rooms under a glowing heat, with vegetable and animal refuse decaying in the streets and halls near them. The children cannot—especially the girls—get a run to the country or an outing of any kind. They sit languid

at their doors, looking out at the filthy gutters during the day, and often sleep in the halls or on the roofs during the night. Life becomes one continual struggle with heat and exhaustion and foul air. In such a state of things is furnished the proper *nidus* for seeds of the dread pestilence, cholera infantum, which sweeps off so many thousands of children every summer. Here are the decayed fruit and vegetables, the air filled with noxious gases, the close sleeping rooms, the intense rays of a nearly tropical sun, and a certain high humidity, with a population utterly ignorant of the laws of health. What wonder that, during certain summers, the deaths of children under five years in New York have reached the fearful amount of 1,000 per week, mainly from intestinal disorders?

We believe we may say that the first large and organized efforts to meet and somewhat cure these evils among the children of the poor during the summer, especially in New York, were made by the Children's Aid Society. We had tried, some twenty-five to thirty years ago, the sending the needy children of our Industrial Schools and Lodging Houses on day picnics, so as to give them a breath of fresh air and country enjoyments. But these were found unsatisfactory, and not sufficient really to restore health and yield a permanent pleasure. Later on, the newspapers entered on this philanthropic labor; and the New York *Times* sent out many picnic parties of poor children. This benevolent labor was probably after a time felt to be too responsible a charge for a daily journal. Yet a newspaper, if it chooses so to use its influence, has an almost unlimited power in raising money for such humane objects. Next, the *Evening Post* enlarged the scope of these picnics by sending out children for a week or more to homes in the country. This kindly enterprise was finally abandoned, probably for the same reasons which influenced the *Times*; and the *Tribune* resumed the work of philanthropy, and has now greatly extended it, sending off large numbers every summer for a two weeks' sojourn in country homes.

To return to the Children's Aid Society: in 1873-74, a benevolent lady of the city, Mrs. A. P. Stokes, Jr., who has always felt a deep sympathy for the poor of New York, handed over material and money to the society to carry on a summer home for the children of the poor during one year. This was opened upon Staten Island. The next year, it was transferred to the seashore, at Bath, L.I.; and, in 1879-80, a generous citizen, known also in the West, Mr. A. B. Stone, founded on this coast a permanent summer refuge for the destitute children of New York, by presenting Bath Park, a property of four and one-fourth acres, purchased for \$20,000, to the society.

There is scarcely on the whole coast, near New York, a more lovely site than this. It lies in the centre of the deep bay between Fort Hamilton and Coney Island, and the whole commerce of New York passes by it in approaching or leaving the Narrows. The sea in front is dotted with sails and boats of every kind, and presents a most animating and cheerful picture. The bathing is agreeable and not dangerous. It is only an hour's sail from New York, and is accessible by railroads and boats. This place has also the remarkable advantage on the Long Island coast of possessing beautiful lawns and well-grown trees on its landward side. The society erected various structures on this property, and hither have been brought down every week, during the hot summer months, 250 of the poorest children from the tenement houses of the city. In the course of the summer, some 4,000 children are thus permitted to enjoy this great pleasure and means of health. Some may be seen bathing and plunging in the sea, some are lying about under the trees on the green lawns, others swinging, others playing games in the pavilion or building houses in the sand. Here, they enjoy, for the first time, clean beds, nourishing fare, and pure air from the great ocean. A week in this happy place has a wonderful effect upon these children of poverty. They go back to the slums with a new store of health. Besides being a pleasure, it is an initiation to them in the first lessons of civilization. Great numbers of them have never slept "between two sheets" or on anything more than a pile of rags or clothing. Many have never had a "square meal," and evidently do not know the use of the knife and fork: they have been in the habit of picking up food as they got it; and such a thing as a "grace" at table, or waiting for others to begin a meal, was unknown to them. We remember once seeing a long line of Italian children file up to the table, and, in a moment, every piece of bread at the plates had disappeared, hid in the capacious pockets or sleeves of the little ones. It was not from any impulse to take what was not theirs, but simply the instinct of a barbarian to lay up food for the future when he found it. We began very early to preach the "doctrine of oatmeal" among them, and, to our surprise, found that the children of peasants, who had been brought up upon it, did not at all relish oatmeal and good milk for breakfast, but much preferred their usual ration of coffee with a little hot bread. Great numbers, however, acquired a taste for this nutritious food, and have induced their mothers to cook it.

Our experience with these children, however, was not always one

of unalloyed happiness. At one time, a great panic took possession of the whole establishment, from a rumor circulated among them that they were to be kidnapped and sent West "*to pack ice*"! Why this particular employment was pitched upon, unless to indicate the coldness of their destination, was somewhat mysterious. At another time, a ghost in the dormitories produced a prodigious fright, until it was found to be a mischievous girl, wrapped in a sheet. Another somewhat surprising thing constantly occurred. It was found that a few of the most wretched of the children, coming from the most miserable dens of the city, were nearly always homesick the first day or two. It seemed as if the absence of the accustomed smells and dirt and confusion, the quiet and freedom from disturbance, weighed upon their spirits, and made them feel that they were not at home. On one occasion, a child's mother had been arrested in her absence and sent to the almshouse, so that she had absolutely no home. It was kindly proposed that she should remain over Sunday at the Home, until her mother was released; but she replied to this benevolent offer with such screams and agonizing cries that she was obliged to be sent to the city with the others. Such facts have been a comfort to the writer, as showing that human happiness is much more equally distributed than is usually supposed, and the home of the ragpicker and bone-gatherer is as dear and attractive to the child as the wealthiest mansion to its little tenant.

In the history of the Summer Home during the last ten years, hardly a case of sickness worthy of the name has occurred. The children returned to their tenement houses brown with the air and plump from the good nourishment, looking back on their week at Bath as the one great pleasure of the year. Of course, the management of such a mass of children as these four thousand little ones requires great order and discipline. But it has gone on these many years with scarce ever an accident or serious friction. By great economy and skilful purchasing, the expense of each child per week has been brought down to about \$2.00, including railroad fares, wages, food, salaries, fuel, and everything but construction.

Thus far, this work of benevolence had been concerned with well children and the prevention of disease. It was necessary, however, to extend it, and see if it were not possible to lessen the frightful mortality among children from intestinal diseases during the summer months. The death-rate, as we have said before, was frightful in certain years; and cholera infantum carried off its thousands of little victims in New York every summer. Experience had shown the

writer in his own family, as well as among the poor, that a few days of fresh air by the sea or on the mountains will often entirely break up this disease, and save a child at the very point of death. We have been carrying on for a number of years a "Mission" for the sick children of the city, and it was constantly found that babies were brought by their mothers to the superintendent who were clearly dying for the want of pure air and nutritious food. One of the saddest sights in the world was the wan and pinched faces of these little infants suffering from marasmus, which seems a state of inanition due to diarrhoea and the lack of nourishing diet. A philanthropic citizen of New York, Mr. D. Willis James, who has done so much for the poor of this city, seeing these evils, offered to put up a sanitarium for the society, if a proper site could be found. Several years were spent in an unavailing search, until at length a breezy, healthy spot was found on the west end of Coney Island. Here, in a quiet nook, away from the rush of summer visitors, where the strong ocean breezes sweep across the sands, with a lovely view of the open sea on one side and Gravesend Bay and the Narrows on the other, Mr. James put up for us a picturesque, roomy building, designed to accommodate about 120 mothers and children. The architect was Mr. C. Vaux, who has constructed several of the excellent lodging houses for boys which the society has erected in the past few years. This building is much admired for its picturesque character and its practical arrangement. The cost was about \$12,000; and several cottages and pavilions, the gift of other benefactors, were built in connection with it. The great practical problem, at first, was the drainage, as the sea water percolates the island to within a foot and a half of the surface. Water, however, was obtained from the public water works; and a drain of something like a thousand feet of iron and earthen pipes was made, to be flushed by tanks at the head, which swept off all the refuse into the marshy ground on Gravesend Bay. Deep piazzas and upper galleries were constructed for the shelter of the women and their infants during the hot hours of the day; and open fireplaces were provided within, in case of cold and stormy weather. The women had their own closets, lavatories, laundries, bath-rooms, and clothes closets, so that, if possible, no vermin might be introduced into the dormitories. Throughout the summer, everything was kept scrupulously neat and clean; and there was never the slightest smell about the establishment characteristic of a hospital, or a public "institution."

The poor mothers and their infants were gathered in the office of

our Sick Mission in the city, carefully inspected by a physician, the contagious cases and the well children excluded, and only the sick sent down to the Health Home. After having reached the House, the superintendent had the final and absolute right of excluding those who were not suitable cases. Here, however, at once arose a difficulty. Many mothers had sick infants, but could not leave the older children who were well. We could not admit the healthy children, as their noise tended to diminish the chances of recovery for the sick. We compromised the matter, so far as we could; sometimes sending the older children to our Summer Home, sometimes letting the mother go back after two or three days to look after the other children. But, on the whole, so far as it was possible, we stuck to our rule, and only took in the sick children. The revelations of poverty, sickness, and misery which came to us with these poor mothers, accustomed as we were to the misfortunes of the city poor, were moving in the extreme: mothers with dying infants in their arms walking day after day, and sometimes in the night, seeking work and food; women abandoned, women helpless, mothers who had not been able properly to feed their children for weeks, and all finding their beloved little ones dying in their arms for want of fresh air and good food. This Health Home was the first home that many had known, the first refuge for the homeless, the first rest for the weary. We found soon that the Home was quite as valuable for the mothers as for the infants. These poor women seemed ignorant of the very first lessons of civilization. A night garment was unknown to them. The babies had not been washed sometimes for two or three months, and the mother would hardly recognize her own offspring after the vigorous cleansing which she and the nurses would administer to it. Their ideas of diet were the wildest possible. An Italian woman has been seen holding a baby suffering from diarrhoea that had a pickle in one hand, a piece of candy in the other, and to whom she administered raw brandy in the intervals of stomach-ache. All were in the habit of giving their children decayed fruit; and the brandy bottle was found in many a mother's pocket, to be used at once for the infant when suffering the slightest pain. These horrible remedies and the unnatural diet produced a constipation which ended continually in brain troubles. Other infants were wasting away under the influence of cholera infantum, and the peaked faces of those suffering under marasmus met one at every turn. The majority of the mothers seemed very little used to the habits of civilized life: many had apparently seldom taken a "square meal," and knew nothing about making a bed properly or keeping a room clean.

Instruction in all these matters became a regular part of the discipline of the sanitarium. The first thing taught was cleanliness for mother and child; then the taking regular and nutritious food, the avoiding alcoholic drinks, and the giving the infant full breaths of the pure ocean air. The change which at once was manifested in these children was something marvellous. A child was often brought there apparently at the very point of death. A few hours of the cool, fresh ocean breezes would revive it astonishingly, good milk restored it still more; and the next day it would perhaps be laughing and playing like a healthy babe. Sometimes, the cases required a longer treatment; but most of the intestinal disorders recovered amazingly quickly. The cases of brain trouble, malaria, and other maladies were more difficult to reach. For cases of bronchitis and throat troubles, the air was probably too strong. During the summer, over 1,100 mothers and infants were brought to the Home as more or less permanent patients; and about 1,100 more came down on day excursions to get the benefit of the sea air for their children, being fed from the provisions of the Home, either at the place or at the adjacent railway station. Only one death occurred in the Home during the summer, and that of an infant at the point of death when brought. Two or three died on returning to their homes. The experiment with these sick mothers and infants was a remarkable success; and several hundred lives were undoubtedly saved, and diseases prevented with many others. It is earnestly hoped that the work of the Health Home may be enlarged another season by the erection of more cottages and by more liberal provision and means from the benevolent public. During the past summer, owing to the great depression of business and the preoccupation of the public mind, it has been exceedingly difficult to obtain means for the support of this excellent branch of charity.

Besides these two efforts in summer charities should be mentioned the considerable number of Homes and Sanitaria sustained by individuals and churches; the useful Brooklyn Sanitarium, founded several years since; the important Sick Mission work accomplished by the Children's Aid Society; and the large number sent to the country by the Fresh Air Fund of the New York *Tribune*. All these benevolent efforts are scattering untold happiness among the children of the poor in this great metropolis. It is an effort of the humane and the Christian throughout the country to give a share in the blessings of fresh air and country pleasures to the unfortunate children of the poor in New York. It will have many far-reaching effects beyond

the pleasure it gives. It is already lessening disease, diminishing the death-rate among children, and saving valuable lives for the nation; it is bringing different classes together in mutual good-will; it is doing more to check communism and nihilism among our city working classes than any number of lectures and sermons; above all, it tends to give the children of the laboring poor in this city a knowledge of the country and a taste for its wholesome pursuits, which will be an advantage to both sides in the future. The girls and boys thus sent forth will be more willing to be domestics and laborers in the country, and the city will be relieved of its tremendous pressure of population.

But there are certain dangers connected with these humane movements, which ought now in the beginning to be carefully considered:—

1. Great care must be exercised in the organization and transportation of such large numbers of children. Any accident or mishap would be of great injury to the whole enterprise, and might seriously prejudice it among the poor. Accounts, also, should be carefully kept, so that the whole thing can be economically and honestly managed, and no scandal spring up in connection with it. Where great numbers of children are taken, much economy can be obtained; but it cannot be hoped that the smaller Homes or Sanitaria can be managed so cheaply.

2. Caution must be exercised that none but the needy are thus assisted. A class of persons often throw themselves on these charities who ought to be ashamed of being thus aided. A woman came to the Health Home during the summer attired in a silk dress, whose husband had several workmen in his employ; and yet she was not ashamed to ask for this public assistance, and to present the babe, which was covered with vermin and sores, from neglect. Such persons must be forced to take care of themselves. To the Summer Home during the past season, some of the Missions sent down a girl clad in elegant silk, another with white kid slippers, another who objected to the good wholesome fare, because "she had chickens every day at home," another whose father "lived in his own house" (a rare occurrence in New York), and another whose father kept a large hotel. Some of our helpers of the poor in the city are extremely careless as to the subjects they select for public assistance. The hard-earned gifts of the benevolent throughout the country ought never to be used for those who are too careless or idle to give country pleasures to their own children. This beautiful charity should be kept exclusively

for the children of the poor and laboring classes in our tenement houses. There, it can do no harm, and will reward both giver and receiver.

We give below a comparative statement of the death-rate of children under five years of age, during the past year and a few years since, showing what all these humane efforts are beginning to accomplish :—

	1880	1881	1882	1883	1884
Population (estimated or numbered),	1,206,577	1,242,533	1,279,560	1,317,691	1,356,958
Deaths from all causes, . .	21,496	26,338	27,659	24,188	23,439
Deaths of children under five years,	10,282	12,256	13,572	10,251	10,395

Deaths of children under five years from diarrhœal diseases :—

1871	1872	1873	1880	1881	1882	1883	1884
3,250	4,480	3,634	3,469	3,710	3,479	2,847	*2,315

* For eight months to Sept. 1, 1884.

THE CATHOLIC CHARITIES OF ST. LOUIS.

BY HON. PETER L. FOY.

The number of voluntary charities in St. Louis is much greater than the public suppose, but I am restricted in this paper to the consideration of the Catholic charities. Even these are quite numerous. We have over twenty separate establishments devoted to the care of orphans and the sick and destitute. We have also about thirty St. Vincent de Paul parish conferences, whose mission it is to visit the poor in their homes and administer out-door relief. As this day is set apart for the consideration of matters touching unfortunate and destitute children, I will bring the orphan asylums first to your notice. There are no fewer than eleven of these institutions; namely, St. Joseph's, St. Mary's, St. Bridget's, the Protectorate at Glencoe, Mullanphy Orphan Asylum, St. Vincent's German Male and Female Asylum, the orphanage departments of St. John's Hospital, the asylum for colored orphans, under the care of the Oblate (colored) Sisters, St. Ann's Foundling Asylum, the House of the Angel Guardian, and the orphanage department of the House of the Good Shepherd. I might add that every convent has some orphans within its walls. The number of inmates altogether is over 1,100. It is universally conceded that they are well cared for and well taught. The average cost of each orphan per annum is about fifty dollars.

The St. Ann's Widows' Home, Lying-in Hospital, and Foundling Asylum, 1236 North Tenth Street, was founded by Mrs. Ann Biddell, *née* Mullanphy, and is almost exclusively maintained by her endowment. The city is continually making use of it, but thus far has not contributed a cent to its revenues. The abandoned infants found by the police on the streets are taken to St. Ann's, the doors of which are never closed against these unfortunates. There are 150 infants in the house now, and there are several more out in the city with wet-nurses. There are also 25 destitute widows maintained in St. Ann's as one of the conditions of the endowment. When the children attain a certain age, they are transferred to the regular orphan establishments.

The colored school and orphanage of the Oblate Sisters of Providence is known as St. Elizabeth's. It is yet in its infancy, but there

is no doubt that it is one of the most meritorious charities of our city. The director of the institution is Father Ignatius Pankin, S.J.; and it is the work of his life to make it a success. He has just added a new school building to the convent, which, I regret to say, is not yet paid for. One hundred and seventy-one children, all colored, attend the school. The orphanage takes care of 21; but, if it had the means, would keep a very large number, for there are at least ten applicants for one that can be admitted. Father Pankin is now fitting up a *crèche* and kindergarten for the reception of children whose mothers go out to work by the day. For reasons which it is not necessary to mention here, the charities of the Oblate Sisters have special and peculiar claims on the white people.

The establishment of the Sisters of Mercy, though better known as *St. John's Hospital*, cannot be omitted from any account of the children's asylums of St. Louis. These devoted women visit weekly the male and female city hospitals and the jail, as well as the sick in their own homes. It very often happens that inmates of these institutions have left young children behind them in wretched homes and unprovided for. The Sisters visit the innocent unfortunates and relieve their wants. In many cases, they are obliged to take them into the convent and keep them for a considerable period. The Sisters of Mercy have four or five different charities under the same roof. There is a night refuge in which 3,300 persons had lodgings and something to eat last year. Servants out of employment are received and kept until provided with situations. There is a dispensary which filled 16,240 prescriptions during 1883, very many of them free. There is last, but not least, the hospital (attended by the members of the Missouri Medical College), an excellent institution with moderate charges for those who can pay and a free department for those who cannot. The latter are attended gratuitously by the gentlemen of the Missouri Medical College. This convent has no endowment, neither has the colored convent. I append some detailed information regarding this institution, St. John's:—

Servants provided with situations in 1883,	1,921
Admitted into the House of Mercy in 1883,	836
Admitted into the Night Refuge in 1883,	3,300
Sick poor visited and assisted in 1883,	129
Poor fed at the Convent in 1883,	300
Members of Our Lady of Mercy's Sick Aid Association in 1883,	300
Total number in Hospital in 1883,	535
Prescriptions filled in the Dispensary in 1883,	16,240

The House of the Good Shepherd is another of our charities that calls for special mention. Its name indicates its general character,—an institution for the reclamation of fallen women. But it has other departments. Last year there were 35 children in the industrial school, 125 children in what is called the preservation department, 261 in the reformatory department, and 52 Magdalens. The amount expended during the year for the maintenance of all these and the 43 Sisters of the establishment was \$21,000, or about \$40 per capita. Taxes, insurance, and repairs are not included in that amount. I think I cannot do better than let the Sisters speak for themselves regarding their work and their necessities, premising, however, that I fully indorse what I quote from their report:—

“The first and principal object of the Institute, as is well known, is the reclamation and reformation of fallen women; and the second, which is but an entail of the first, is the sheltering and care of children and young girls from the ages of six to twenty, who, either through destitution, abandonment, unfortunate parentage, or a precocious acquaintance with evil, would be in danger of falling into vagrancy or crime.

“But is a fallen woman ever truly reformed? Yes, assuredly; although, unfortunately, of those who fall again the world knows all too much, while those who return to virtue are covetous only of its oblivion, glad equally to escape its censure or its smile. Many a reclaimed woman has left this house, and won for herself a place among the happy, useful, and honored of our day; while for many—alas! many more than their straitened roofs can shelter—there is no salvation outside these walls.

“The younger girls are taught the ordinary branches of a plain English education, plain and ornamental needlework, dressmaking, and domestic duties. The Reformatory Classes are employed in sewing, principally for some of the large shirt manufacturing houses of the city, and in laundry work received from private families. The Magdalen Community is employed altogether on the finer grades of family custom work.

“All these departments are entirely isolated, not only from the convent and ‘school,’ but also from each other, having each their separate chapels, class and sewing rooms, dormitories, refectories, playgrounds, or gardens.

“Some years since, our kind and deeply regretted benefactress, Mrs. Anna L. Hunt, made us a donation of sixteen acres of land at Normandy, on the Natural Bridge Road. This year, we have determined to make a small beginning at this place, which, with the blessing of God, we hope to see grow into a great charity that will enable us to shelter many more poor and unfortunate.

“Our work is our joy; but it is a work which can only be carried on

in seclusion and silence, far away from all sights and sounds which could stir the dormant passions in the poor penitent's heart.

"But we feel the need of under-divisions and separations between our departments: between the young who are innocent; the children of the Class of Preservation, still innocent or but slightly tainted; the more youthful in the Reformatory Class, whose hearts are yet plastic to good impressions; and those more advanced in years, classified as Department No. 2, whose characters are less susceptible of improvement.

"Many — indeed most of those who come to us — are in ill health, and require a great deal of care to maintain a proper sanitary condition among them. Our present home is entirely too crowded and too confined for necessary out-door air and exercise, and the demand for a larger space is imperative.

"These are a few of the reasons which have pushed us to make this beginning of a Convent and Protectorate outside the city."

I have but to add that the institution has no source of revenue but the labor of the inmates and the voluntary contributions of friends.

As the moral training of youth is a part of the great question before us to-day, I deem it opportune to say that not less than fifteen thousand Catholic children attend the parochial schools in this city. Catholics believe that moral training, unless accompanied by religious instruction, is, if not impracticable, at least insecure and uncertain; and hence, though fully recognizing the secular merit of public schools, they prefer to incur expenditures which, for the most part, they can ill afford, for the purpose of securing religious teaching for their children. I mention this matter, because very many of the children attending the parochial schools are taught gratuitously, their parents not being able to pay for them. These schools are therefore, in a certain degree, sustained by charity. But they could not be maintained at all, if it were not for the exceedingly small compensation which the teachers receive. They work for the merest pittance, and are only able to do so because they belong to the religious orders. There are about 23,000 children, altogether, attending parochial schools in the eastern half of Missouri.

Among other Catholic charities is the Mullanphy Hospital. This is the oldest institution of the kind in the city, and the most celebrated. Two additional wards for the treatment of children are about to be added to it. I will simply give the statistics furnished me through Mr. Charles Chambers, its representative at this Conference, and a descendent of its founder, John Mullanphy. It would be an ungrateful omission to speak of the charities of St. Louis, without mentioning the name of Mullanphy. John, the founder of the family

in St. Louis, made large donations of real estate for the Sisters' Hospital and convent schools and asylum. His daughter, Mrs. Ann Biddell, as already mentioned, endowed the Foundling Asylum and its associated institutions, and gave largely, also, for convent schools. His son, Bryan, founded and richly endowed the Mullanphy Home for immigrants *in transitu* to the West,—an institution which is in charge of the city, and which seems to have more money than it can legitimately expend. And, to-day, not a few of John Mullanphy's descendants in the third and fourth generations are active workers in charitable undertakings. Two of them, especially, are signalized for their practical devotion to the colored school and asylum. The following are the statistics referred to for the year ending Nov. 30, 1883 :

Patients admitted to the Mullanphy Hospital,	930
Of this number, full charity,	48
Partial charity,	60
Died,	80

By out-door clinics, 1,099 poor persons were treated gratuitously, their medicines furnished at cost when they were able to pay for them, and free of charge when they were too poor to pay.

Patients in the Hospital Oct. 13, 1884,	102
Charity patients,	21
Partial charity patients,	14

In the establishment of the Little Sisters of the Poor there are 250 poor persons at present. No one is received who has any means whatever, and who is under sixty years of age. These persons are all supported by alms, and largely by what would otherwise go to waste. Old clothes, linen, blankets, food already cooked, the remains of the rich man's feast, etc., are all gladly accepted by the Little Sisters of the Poor, and utilized.

The machinery for dispensing out-door relief consists of the St. Vincent de Paul Society, which is divided into local or parish organizations, known as Conferences of St. Vincent de Paul. There are over twenty of these conferences in St. Louis; and they are governed by what is known as the Upper Council,—a central body composed of delegates from the local bodies. Most of the relief given out by the society is conditioned by the reports of members who have visited the applicants in their homes. Occasionally, relief is given quietly to persons who would rather suffer than be known as paupers. There is very little danger of this charity being abused. Chronic paupers are relieved, and of course have to be relieved; but the mode and extent

of the relief given forbid the fear of its misapplication. The character of the work done, and the method employed for ascertaining the really destitute, will best appear from the following figures taken from the last annual report of the Upper Council :—

Number visiting the poor,	251
Number of visits to the poor,	13,864
Average number of families relieved each week in winter,	498
Average number of families relieved each week in summer,	147
Fuel,	\$2,531.50
Provisions,	8,423.34
Rent for the poor,	598.90
Relief in money,	314.63
Clothing and shoes for the poor,	271.07
Schooling for children,	112.45
Conference library,	5.30
Conference expenses,	183.50
Burials,	442.10
Hospital expenses,	116.30
Disbursements by Conferences for the year ending Dec. 1, 1883, . . .	\$14,866.87
Disbursements by Upper Council,	4,894.27
Total for year,	\$19,761.14

From the data I have obtained, I compute the cost of maintaining each orphan and charity patient, foundling, destitute, and aged person at about \$50 a year. The orphans in the four principal asylums do not cost so much as that; but, putting one class with another and one institution with another, that estimate will be found, I think, a fair approximation to the actual expenditure. Of course, this implies that the food and clothing are always of the plainest; but the praise is due to the religious sisterhoods, who have charitable institutions in their charge. Under no other superintendence can charities be administered so cheaply, and the reason of this is so obvious that it need not be mentioned.

THE ABANDONMENT OF CHILDREN.

BY MADAME CONCEPCION ARENAL.

[Doña Concepcion Arenal, of Gijon in Spain, is a lady of extraordinary grasp and vigor of intellect, and of high social and moral standing in her own country and in Europe. She contributed to the International Prison Congress at Stockholm a discussion of every one of the sixteen questions to which that Congress formulated answers; and, for Dr. Wines' book on *The State of Prisons*, she furnished a complete account of the prison system of Spain. Dr. Wines characterizes her as, "beyond doubt, the foremost woman in Spain of all who take an interest in and labor for the promotion of the cause of prison reform in that country." Her views on the subject of the Abandonment of Children, a translation of which follows, are worthy of the most serious attention. In so far as her observations are not applicable to the social conditions of the United States, they are for us a warning. The responsibilities of fathers and the obligations of marriage are clearly set forth by her, and the need of correct social sentiment with reference to them. Some things said by her may not be universally accepted, but these do not impair the value of her reasoning and her general conclusions.—F. H. W.]

As the study of delinquent men has led to the study of forsaken children, so the latter leads to a consideration of those culpable, faulty, selfish, or weak mothers who abandon or corrupt their children, or who themselves with their offspring are victims to a power stronger than they. It is therefore impossible to separate the study of the child that one tries to assist from that of the mother who makes this help necessary, and whose social condition is the principal clew to the solution of the problem.

It has been said that we should succor and educate children who are morally or materially forsaken, that we may prevent the formation of vicious and criminal men. And can there be any work holier than this of rescuing innocence from the sad and often irresistible fate which awaits it? This work is being accomplished with consoling rapidity. From one end of civilization to the other, the cry is heard, Let us save the children! And this cry of reason and of conscience is everywhere re-echoed. But we must not stand still in the work we have begun. To extirpate the evil, we must attack it in its source; and, having checked the poisonous stream, we must scatter the materials which corrupt it.

The following problem then presents itself: How shall we prevent

children from being materially and morally forsaken? It is well understood that no remedy, however efficacious it may be, can ever entirely overcome this evil. For a long time, perhaps always, there will be some children materially or morally abandoned. But this result should be obtained: the number of cases of abandonment should be so reduced that, instead of amounting to thousands and millions, they should be rare exceptions, resulting from serious wrongs, and revealing, not a social, but an individual sin.

We know that, owing to the intimate connection of social elements and their reciprocal action, they all concur, more or less directly, in the good or bad results in which we rejoice or over which we mourn. We know, too, that the abandonment of children is the result of many causes. But we believe there is no cause so powerful as that of the social condition of woman, understanding by social condition all the circumstances which result from the laws, customs, opinions, and from the industrial, artistic, and scientific condition of modern nations.

It is evident that the little child's first need is the mother, and to this first and greatest need corresponds its greatest loss. On seeing an abandoned child, one's first thought is of her who gave it being, whether she be dead, guilty, or unfortunate. The thought of the father comes later. So, in considering the question of forsaken infants, that the mother, their natural and tender guardian, can abandon them, is the most deplorable and incomprehensible thought. So deplorable is it that, save in rare exceptions, it cannot be admitted as the spontaneous and voluntary action of the woman, but rather as the result of circumstances in which she finds herself placed. We say "in which she finds herself placed" to express the fact that this situation is, to a great extent, not her own work; that there are many cases in which she is but slightly to blame, and a reasonable number in which she is guiltless.

We must make a distinction between the passionate, weak, vicious woman, who, though unmarried, has children, and her who abandons them. Passion and instinct are natural; but, if they are not controlled, vice is so inevitable that it, too, seems natural. But between this weakness and actual depravity there is an immense distance which a woman does not generally cross alone. She may have grave failings and commit serious errors without becoming unnatural. Whoever has observed unchaste and criminal women must have seen that even in these beings in whom everything seems polluted there is sometimes one pure thing, the mother love. There are excep-

tional mothers without feeling, true monstrosities ; but the members of this unclassified and unnatural species are not always found in the lowest social class, as the abstract reasoner, who neglects facts, might suppose. Moral perversity comes in different ways. The mire of wealth is no less fetid than that of misery, nor can the gold dust with which it glitters purify it. These maternal monsters, of whatever social rank, high or low, are regarded as a psychological or pathological problem, a question for the courts, and not as the social question which they are, in consequence of the existence of thousands of tiny creatures abandoned physically or morally by those who gave them birth. To solve it, we have recourse, not to tribunals, nor to the penal law, nor to the force of arms, but to those living intellectual and moral forces of society, which urge us to just decisions and devoted actions. This social question may be generally stated as the problem which all ask and all should solve.

For our own part, considering the great importance of the condition of the mother with reference to its solution, and insisting that the mother who voluntarily abandons her child is a rare exception, we will take for our starting-point the following formula : The mother who abandons her child is constrained, or at least aided, by society, which may be considered the author, joint author, or accomplice of this abandonment.

That we may be convinced of this truth, we must study the question thoughtfully. Let us analyze the moral and material abandonment of infants, and we shall understand that it would not take place if the circumstances of the mother were such as to make it morally and physically possible for her to support her child. This analysis may be briefly made by asserting and proving the following propositions : —

I. For the propagation, preservation, and perfection of the species, the co-operation of man is necessary, not only in a physiological, but also in an economic, moral, and intellectual sense.

II. In the propagation, preservation, and perfection of the species, the mission of woman is far more difficult than that of man : nature has been hard to her ; and, in the relations of sex, she has great natural disadvantages.

III. The natural disadvantages of woman, which ought to be diminished as much as possible, are increased by society ; and these combined natural and social disadvantages that oppress the mother react upon the child.

1. It has been well said that the child has a right to its mother, but

this is not enough. It is equally true that the child has a right to its father, for it needs both. The duty of supporting it belongs to both, nor can one morally separate the fact of giving a child its being from the obligation of caring for it.

Let us consider the child in any state, savage or civilized. It can live a few hours or days without a father ; but this possibility cannot be greatly prolonged, for the mother alone cannot support and nourish it. Among civilized people, she does not need to defend her little one against the attacks of wild animals or of cruel men : if her own strength is insufficient, the public will come to her aid. But a woman with child, a nursing mother, a mother surrounded by her children, cannot provide for their needs : both time and strength are lacking ; and the man must come with his labor, and co-operate in preserving the lives to which he has given being. And this co-operation must be in harmony with the natural and social circumstances in which he lives. This is in harmony with nature ; for the long interval during which the child's life is one with the mother's, the need of support which she alone cannot furnish, and the child's prolonged infancy,—all show that woman, by herself, cannot provide for the necessities of her children. If uncivilized man had not defended women from wild beasts and from the cruel rapacity of other tribes, and provided for their subsistence, the race would have disappeared. Civilization modifies and perfects, but in no wise changes the relations which exist between children and their parents. The father, whether a hunter or a mechanic, whether he lives in a cave or constructs a comfortable abode, is bound to contribute to the support of his family an amount of labor corresponding to his powers. For, although in an advanced state of civilization there are some women who, through inherited fortune or special aptitude, are able to provide for the wants of a family, these are exceptional cases ; and the general rule is, that neither economically nor physiologically can one sex take the place of the other, but both should work in harmony and each supply what the other lacks. It is not that a man works more, but that he works differently ; it is not that he has or uses more strength, but that a woman's strength is differently employed. No less vital power is consumed in giving to a child the blood of one's veins and the milk of one's breast than in the greatest muscular efforts. To live and to attain perfection as well as to be brought into being, the child needs the concurrence of both father and mother. The authors of its existence should be its protectors.

The partial or total abandonment of children is generally the result

of the failure of the father, either through inability or unwillingness to give this indispensable co-operation in the support and care of the family. Such children as are partially or totally abandoned are the children of wives, unmarried mothers, or widows. Their fathers are men who for some cause cannot work, men whose earnings do not suffice for a living, or vicious men who squander a great part of what they earn. Society cannot deny the evidence that woman alone is unequal to the support of a family; and the help afforded, under one form or another, to children, to supply either entirely or partially their lack of a father, confirms the truth of our first proposition. But we must not forget that that statement was true in all its parts, and that when the father is lacking, although his loss from a material point of view can be made good, yet morally and intellectually it is irreparable. The father, if dead, leaves a place empty which no one can fill; if vicious or depraved, he contaminates by his bad example, discourages by his desertion, and overwhelms with bitterness and disgrace those whom he ought to protect. As the natural functions of father and mother are distinct, so their spiritual functions are different; and, in the education of children, if either parent is lacking or if their action is not tolerably harmonious, the evil is serious and only to a small extent reparable.

These cries of anguish and pity, which come from the very heart of this century, demand help for forsaken children. These numerous and varied forms of material and spiritual aid are, as a careful consideration shows, nothing more than a means of supplying the father's place; for the fault or helplessness of the mother is the result of the father's error, save in exceptional cases of death or crime.

2. The second proposition is so true and so well recognized by every one that we shall only state it in order to render the logical order of facts and ideas more perceptible. Suppress moral order, and paternity is simply a moment's pleasure without disagreeable consequences; while maternity brings with it pain, suffering, agony, and even loss of life. The father is united by no physiological bond to his child. But that child at first forms one organization with its mother, and afterward, during the time of suckling, still depends entirely upon her for its life. These essential and inevitable differences are so many advantages for the man. When, in the relations of the sexes, morality is discarded and conscience suppressed, the father may deny that he is a father; but the mother cannot deny her maternity. No matter how it may be qualified, as a matter of fact

the man is exempt from prejudice and completely free ; while the woman, through nature's inexorable law, is subject to consequences which may be terrible and are always serious. Every one knows this law ; but it is not enough to know it : one must be deeply impressed with its consequences, that we may not dream of an equality which does not exist, or of a spontaneous justice which could only be the result of much labor and of great progress in the road to perfection.

3. The fate of the mother being so closely united with that of the child, every injustice to her is prejudicial to the child. Society, by its injustice and its errors, helps to deprive the child of its parents and to lessen the power of the mother.

All these evils vary in degree in different countries, but reach their maximum in those States where the law does not ask who is the father of a child and does not punish its desertion, and where public opinion sanctions the law. The barefaced wickedness of that law is sometimes so great as to interdict any investigation of this nature, which is nothing less than an interdiction of justice ; and an article upholding such a monstrous doctrine might be thus drawn up : "Article —. Every father has a right to be unnatural." That this right is no dead letter, that it is frequently exercised, the wails of thousands of children attest,—children born with an unknown father, or, if known, the knowledge is in vain. Among civilized nations, whoever commits a public nuisance, however slight, may be summoned to answer for it at law ; but the horrible moral deformity and rottenness shown in casting a child upon the public highway is not punished as even the slightest offence against municipal law. The law ordains that damages be paid to any one who has sustained detriment. But, if a son is injured, if the harm done is the immense, almost infinite injury of a life rendered vile, unhappy, perhaps criminal, no indemnity is exacted ; nor is there a punishment for this infernal endowment. As if giving life under such conditions were not worse than murder ! The physical father who forsakes his child,—the monstrous being in whom are only bestial and selfish instincts, who cannot indeed be compared to an animal without insulting it, since animals in this matter do only what is needful for the perpetuation of their kind,—this man lives under the protection of law and public opinion, and his depravity causes him neither detriment nor remorse. What does it matter to him whether the victims of his inhuman brutality are weeping in a charitable institution, are cursing in prison, or are silent in the grave ? For him, life consists in the satisfaction of his appetites, and not in the fulfilment of his duty. Thus, thousands

of physical fathers think and act, and are countenanced so to think and act by the law, which does not punish, and by public opinion, which does not anathematize them. In short, it is saying rather too little than too much to affirm that society aids in depriving a multitude of children of their fathers.

Besides this deprivation, which morally and socially may be called absolute, there is another, which consists in tolerating the material abandonment, whether more or less complete, in which a married man leaves his family, and also the moral abandonment which results from negligence and bad example. It is not women, who might be accused of sentimentality, but men of intelligence and character, who have sketched the sad picture of wives exposed to the inclemency of the weather and perishing with cold, waiting at the doors of drinking-saloons to see if they can lead their husbands home, and recover a part of their week's wages. It is men who have drawn the picture of mothers whose children are crying with hunger, waiting in vain for their father to come with a part of the money that he has earned, or weeping at the thought that he will come only to ill-treat them. These deeds are repeated a hundred times every day ; and the law closes its eyes and is dumb in the presence of these little creatures, born only to sorrow and sickness,—dumb before this man who has given them being, only to starve their bodies and impair their minds. We are horrified at hearing that in ancient Rome a father had the right to sell or kill his son,—we who recognize a father's right to torture and corrupt his child and to kill it, too ; for many there are who die, victims of their fathers' vices.

In thus sanctioning the father's desertion, society brings about that of the mother, who, when unmarried, is weighed down, not only by the material impossibility of providing for her child's support, but also by misery and dishonor. It seems as though, if society had tried to secure the murder or abandonment of the greatest possible number of children, it could have found no more efficacious means than those which it employs in relieving the father of all responsibility and in leaving the mother to be deserted and scorned, meting out disgrace, not according to the deed, but according to the sex of the offender. Society thus increases the natural disadvantages of woman instead of counteracting them, condemns the woman instead of condemning the man who deserts her, and, instead of extending its protection to the innocent, unborn child, creates perils for it, and actually arms its murderers. Nothing more absurd or more cruel to the child can be imagined than the behavior of society toward the unmarried mother,

Before the dead body of an innocent babe, a poet has summed up its short, sad history in three lines, at the same time a touching picture and a terrible accusation:—

"Deux tyrans disposent de ton sort:
Amour contre honneur donna la vie,
Honneur contre amour donna la mort."

It should surely be stigmatized as the most abominable of crimes, that of killing the being to whom one has given birth,—a weak, innocent creature, that can neither give offence nor defend itself, that needs love from all and weeps that it may be comforted. What name shall be given to an outrage so horrible? That of homicide? That of assassination? There is a special name: it is infanticide; and the law, regarding as extenuating those circumstances which really aggravate the crime, punishes it less severely than theft, less severely than forgery in certain cases. Judges, in some countries, are even more lenient than the law; and, with surprise and grief, we see the free discharge of mothers guilty of infanticide under circumstances which render the crime appalling. Though such judgments seem to the conscience inconceivable, they are logical. Society, seeing and feeling that it is an accomplice of the murderess, excuses her, and imposes upon her either a slight penalty or none at all.

Although the question of infanticide may seem to be outside of our subject, since we are discussing the abandonment of children, still the former is a part of the latter; for abandonment is often a way, and a very cruel way, of killing children. Whether the effects produced upon the child are more or less terrible depends on the circumstances and the character of the mother, but the determining causes of both are the same.

We have said that society, in enfeebling the mother, helps to produce her abandonment of the child; and this action of society, if not the most obvious, is the strongest cause of her adversity.

In refusing education to woman, society deprives her of much intellectual power. In making it impossible for her to enter the most lucrative departments of trade, society imposes upon her an economic inferiority. In placing woman under the tutelage of her husband, society gives her a very disadvantageous legal position. And thus the mother, who is the firmest stay, the most valiant defender, the surest and most necessary helper that nature has given the child, is enfeebled by society in every way. It deprives her of moral and intellectual strength, of legal and economic power. If a woman is

unmarried, society demoralizes her by permitting the father's desertion, while making her bear the disgrace of it. If she is married, society renders it impossible for her to make good her children's claim for support upon their father, who spends not only his own earnings, but often those of his wife also, and who sells her effects without her having any legal means of protecting the family from its master, who can with impunity become its tyrant. If she is a widow, society cuts off the resources which might be hers, by excluding her from many fields of labor; and, whatever business or position she may be in, society deprives her of means, of prestige, of respectability, and of strength,—all of which she needs to protect her child against misery and against itself. How often a child is ruined from having scorned the precepts of his mother, and how largely is this scorn caused by the contempt with which he sees that she is regarded and by the inferiority which is attributed to her! In looking at these laws, customs, and opinions, in seeing so many absurd, unjust, and contradictory things, in beholding all that is done to incite women to the abandonment of their children, whom we afterward try to rescue, the heart is grieved and the understanding confounded. It seems inexplicable that among civilized nations brutality and selfishness should have been allowed to prevail in so wide and essential a sphere of relationship, or that an animal so depraved that it even lacks the instinct for the preservation of the species should be permitted to be born. If we wished to represent this pictorially, we might paint society trying with one hand to bind up deep wounds inflicted by the other.

What remains to be said follows naturally from our previous statements.

To prove the extent of the evil, it is not necessary, unfortunately, to have recourse to statistics. The great attention which government, benevolent institutions, and charitable persons are giving to this subject, and the nature of the remedies used or proposed, demonstrate its importance. It is right to point out the fact that figures in this case, even more than in others, may lead to error; for the whole truth is not to be found in statistics, nor is the direct truth there stated.

The number of children whose fathers are not known, of children whose mothers only are known, and of children who are entirely forsaken may be ascertained with sufficient exactitude; but statistics cannot give us a correct idea of the partial and moral abandonment of children. To gain even an approximate idea of this, we must

have recourse to reasoning rather than to arithmetic. The statistics of prisons and penitentiaries furnish important data ; but the history of the men there imprisoned, whose infancy was spent in material, moral, and intellectual misery, through the fault of their parents, would furnish still more important information. How many cases of attempted abortion or infanticide must there be for each case actually prosecuted ! How much ill-treatment and corruption of children by their parents does each child protected by law, by the public, or by charitable institutions, suggest ! Who can calculate it ? Sometimes, a criminal trial reveals the depth of perversity of the lover who deceives the mother and forsakes the child, or of the husband who lives only to torture his family. But for one case which becomes public and is called a crime there is an infinite number full of anguish and misery, which, though forming no judicial drama, form a domestic one,—cases that the judge ignores and the law tolerates, the cries of whose victims are lost in space or are silenced by the tomb. Whoever knows the suffering of a bad man's family, and how impossible it is to resist the heavy oppression ; whoever is familiar with the laws and circumstances which attend the wrongs committed against the family by its head,—whoever, finally, *reflects* on all this must be convinced that the evils which reach the judicial surface are only an index of a much more serious evil in the heart of society, and that, when the abandonment of children and the moral perversity of their parents are in question, the figures of statistics must be supplemented by reflection and by logic.

Legislation in Spain and in all nations lessens greatly, as has been already said, the power of the mother, the natural and tender protector of the child. If the Spaniards, as fathers, did all the wrong that they might do with impunity, the race would become extinct. This statement may seem strange, but any one who reflects must confess that it is true. Lovers may forsake their children, as many thousands do, without being prosecuted by the law or condemned by public opinion. A still sadder fact is that women, who consider themselves and are considered by others as virtuous, do not scruple to accept such men for husbands, ignoring completely the woman whom they have deceived and the children whom they have forsaken.

Husbands may desert their families absolutely, going far away, or while still living in the same place. They may refuse all help to their children in misery, and spend all that they possess in the company of bad women who take the place of their wives ; and there is no authority which, in the name of the law, can set a limit to their

wickedness and punish it. If it is thus in cases of the most entire and barefaced abandonment, it is easy to see how it would be with the partial and hypocritical abandonment of a father who squanders in vice the greater part of what he possesses; who lives sometimes at the expense of his wife and children; and who, changed from a master into a tyrant, comes among them only to ill-treat and shock them. All this is done legally or, at least, with impunity. In rare cases, mothers, too, may abandon their family, leaving the home; and, unless the husband prosecutes for adultery, the law has nothing to say.

The husband may not only dispose at his pleasure, and to the prejudice of his children, of his own property, but besides, as administrator of his wife's fortune, he is the true and only master of it.* The laws of public instruction refuse to woman the means of acquiring a liberal education; and to her industrial education they also oppose obstacles, which are increased by custom and public opinion. The executive laws do not allow a woman to occupy any official position under government; and, although some countries are beginning to throw open to her certain offices, they are of slight importance.

In short, all the rights of woman are diminished, to the prejudice of her respectability and of her means of subsistence; and, if she is a mother, to the great prejudice of her children, in case the father does not fulfil his paternal duties, and even if he does fulfil them.

We know very well that the deep-seated evils of society cannot be immediately cured by legislation; but it is indisputable that when laws are unjust they increase these evils, and that in sanctioning injustice they aid greatly in perverting the public conscience. For this reason, the following legal provisions would do some immediate good, and in time be of great effect in reducing the number of abandoned children.

The right which a child has to its mother and to its father implies the duty of the mother and of the father to aid the child. The fulfilment of this duty should be exacted by society and enforced by law. The abandonment of children should be punished as an offence, and the paternity † and maternity of a child should be subject to investigation.

Let the wife have personality before the law, that, as a mother, she may have more means of asserting her children's rights when their

* Excepting in the countries, unhappily not numerous, where a married woman is not under her husband's guardianship, but administers and can dispose of her own property.

† In countries where this investigation takes place, it has been observed that it is attended by inconveniences; but the evils of suppressing it are infinitely greater.

father fails to fulfil his duties. Let there be equality between man and woman in their civil rights. Let there be equality between man and woman as regards instruction provided by the State, whether it be literary, artistic, scientific, or industrial. Let woman be eligible to all such offices under the government as she may show herself capable of filling.

Social questions are so intimately connected that, when one is raised, it brings many more in its train. Destitution is very often the cause or the joint cause of the partial or total material or moral abandonment of children; and those well-fed, well-clothed, and well-lodged people who cry out against the faults of ragged and famished parents are presumptuous, when they say what *they* would do in a situation of which they have no experience and can form no idea. It is evident that there are thousands of day laborers who lack the material means of bringing up their children, and even of feeding them, if the family is large; yet the law, far from coming efficaciously and seasonably to the help of the father, burdened by a weight beyond his strength, oppresses him still more by its unjust taxation.

The abominable indirect taxes, the weight of which is felt in proportion to the consumption of each family, bear upon a poor man in proportion to his poverty, and not his wealth; and, as the size of his family increases, they increase his portion of the burden. Indirect taxation, both because it bears so heavily upon such of the poor as have large families and for other reasons, is a direct and very effectual means of augmenting the moral and material misery of the lower classes. Thus, in considering measures preventive of the abandonment of children, the suppression of every sort of indirect tax which falls upon articles of prime necessity presents itself as one of the most necessary.

The law, united with charity, according to circumstances and countries, should come to the aid of fathers who have large families, and should accept the principle that it is much better and less expensive to prevent the abandonment of a child than to help it when once abandoned.

Some of the measures proposed would cost nothing: others would require funds. The means of instruction for woman cannot be extended, nor can poor and honest parents, with many little ones, be aided, without increasing the budget, unless charitable persons and associations contribute the necessary funds.

At present, it is too much to hope that we may obtain all the necessary means in either of these ways. But there is not the least

doubt that, if the public thoroughly understood the expediency and the justice of the object, the money would be forthcoming; and as, in order to diminish the number of adult criminals, deserted children are now cared for, so the causes of this desertion would be overcome.

As to the methods pointed out here, they have been adopted in some countries, and with sufficient energy to give much hope for the remaining seventeen years of the century. We call our age the age of steam and electricity. May future generations call it the age which, giving power to woman, gave at the same time the best protection to the child!

THE GUARDIANSHIP OF MINORS IN POLAND.

BY ALEXANDRE DE MOLDENHAUER,

PRESIDING JUDGE OF THE TRIBUNAL OF WARSAW.

[TRANSLATION.]

The guardianship of minors in Poland is of three kinds,—auxiliary, preventive, and repressive. This division is, however, rather a theoretic one, since often, indeed almost always, auxiliary measures, in their essence as well as in their results, become preventive; while the latter are distinguished by no fixed line of demarcation from repressive measures. I employ the division only more easily to group the numerous and varied methods of giving physical and moral aid to all those who need it.

Among auxiliary methods may be classed lying-in hospitals, foundling homes, bureaus for hiring wet-nurses, day nurseries, infant schools, kindergartens, orphanages, oversight of minors employed in shops and factories, children's hospitals, and summer colonies.

To preventive measures belong several of those already mentioned, as well as industrial schools and certain institutions dependent on our Société de Bienfaisance.

The third group—repressive measures—forms our institute for morally neglected children, the name of which has recently been changed to the Institution for the Moral Correction of Children. To this division belong also our agricultural colony.

1. *Lying-in Hospitals.*—With these is connected the Lying-in Institute of Warsaw, formed from the old School for Midwives in 1802, under the Prussian government. The statutes of this institution were confirmed in 1840; and, at the same time, funds were intrusted to the hospital de l'Enfant Jésus, under the condition that a school of

midwives should be maintained. According to these statutes, the institute must fit women to become capable midwives and to aid indigent women in confinement. The institute possesses, in all, twelve permanent beds. It is the only refuge in the entire country for poor women about to be confined, except the Jewish hospital for the women of that faith. In no other hospital in Poland can they be received. The institute affords no asylum to women during pregnancy.* After confinement, the mother ordinarily remains from nine to ten days at the institute. She is not received at the hospital till the moment of her confinement. The mother takes the child away with her, or, rather, the mother and child go together to the Foundling Hospital. The yearly expense of the institute (in 1880) amounted to 5,727 roubles (about \$2,868). The statistics of the institute show that in 1878 and 1879, respectively, there were 295 and 360 women received. Of these there were in 1878 about 170 unmarried, 105 married, and 90 widows. In 1879 there were 197 married, 143 unmarried, and 20 widows. In 1879 there were 331 infants born, 247 living. Of the latter, 21 died at the institute from debility, showing the sad condition in which the poor mothers arrived. The lying-in ward of the Jewish hospital was opened about the same time as the establishment of that hospital in 1799, and has eleven permanent beds. In 1878 they received 95, in 1879 130, women. Since 1883, several refuges have been opened here and there in our city for lying-in women, containing from four to six beds. The city government contributes annually to these refuges 10,000 roubles (\$5,000). There are at present five,—four Christian and one Jewish.

2. *Foundling Home*.—I omit the history of this institution, merely saying that since 1871 the *tour* has been completely abolished.† In 1860, the special council of the hospital de l'Enfant Jésus, which stands near the Foundling Home, framed some "rules of conduct for parish guardians," for the purpose of giving private protection to

* Between the years 1820 and 1830, the authorities of the country discussed the plan of establishing a maternity at Warsaw. The commission of the Palatinate of Warsaw took the initiative in this work in 1820, and the general medical council studied and wrote upon the project. The number of permanent beds was to be increased to thirty-six, which, relatively to the population at that time, was quite sufficient; since that allowed the institute to receive 1,300 women annually. It is readily seen that, for our population of 400,000 inhabitants, a single lying-in hospital, with twelve beds, is insufficient. Statistics show that in Warsaw there are nearly 12,000 confinements annually, of which 1,200 are of unmarried women. As all of the unmarried women, and one-tenth of the married women, on account of poverty, need assistance, our city ought to have institutions guaranteeing aid and protection for 2,000 confinements instead of for 360, as at present. The refuges for lying-in women, which I mention later in my text, supply at present the lack of lying-in hospitals.

† The *tour* is a turning receptacle for foundlings: the child is placed in it from the outside of the asylum, when it swings round and brings the child inside.—Ed.

those foundlings that are sent to be boarded out in the country. Since the middle of 1878, the conditions relating to the Foundling Home have been greatly changed. In the beginning of May, 1881, there were at the Home 187 children, 173 of them nurslings. As the Home has but 96 wet-nurses (or 90 rather, since 6 of them, being syphilitic, could not suckle the children), each nurse must nurse two children. The figures show 109 (sixty per cent.) sick. The Home has but two physicians; and each has, therefore, to care for about 90 nursing infants, 54 of them being sick,—an impossible thing to do. Besides the two physicians there are two sisters of charity, two female superintendents, two male and two female servants. The Home engages its wet-nurses from the lying-in hospital, from the city of Warsaw, or from the provinces. They may come with or without their infants. Since 1878, the hospital de l'Enfant Jésus has received only infants born at Warsaw whose unmarried mothers were poor, or in case of the death of the mother, and abandoned children found by the police in the streets. Exceptionally, natural children born in the provinces are received under certain provisions of the statutes. The number of foundlings increases from day to day. It often happens that several are picked up in the streets in a single day and brought to the Home. Before all these restrictions were made, the number received into the Home increased very rapidly. In 1864 there were 5,506; in 1869, 7,641; and, in 1875, the number of children went up to 11,044. Since the reforms were introduced, the numbers have lessened: in 1878 there were only 5,234 children, and in 1879 only 1,592. These restrictions, instead of improving the sanitary record of the Home, have greatly injured it. In 1879 there died 469 out of 1,000; while in 1878, although there was a much larger number of children, there were but 442 deaths out of 1,000. That is explained by the deplorable state of health in which the children are brought to the institution. The child stays in the institution about fifty days. The lodging and care cause severe criticism. The fixed number of 240 places—giving shelter to 1,800 children yearly—is entirely insufficient for the 400,000 people of Warsaw, with its economic and social conditions. The province absolutely requires similar institutions in each palatinate.

3. *Offices for Wet-nurses and Women who take Children to board.*—These are entirely under the charge of midwives. At present there are about twenty, in 1883 there were but fifteen. The police has an oversight of them, and, in case of any wrong, brings them to justice. The laws with reference to these offices, applying as well to the

whole kingdom as to Warsaw, were sanctioned by the Committee of Organization in 1870. According to those laws, the number of these offices is not limited (§ 2): only graduated midwives have the right to open such offices, with the permission of the city authorities (§ 3) and the permission of the medical officer of the city (§ 4). A midwife wishing to obtain such permission must present a certificate from the police as to moral conduct and the written bond of a medical practitioner, who takes it upon himself to supervise the office and to examine the state of health of the wet-nurses, who must be brought to him before going to a place. The physician's certificate is valid for only one month and for the time demanded to nurse one child (§ 10). The police have no instructions in reference to women who take children to board; and even in the instructions of 1867, touching the bureau of wet-nurses, there is no mention of them. We have no such law as that of 1873 in England, known as the Infant Life Protection Act. A thousand abuses have sprung up, as the different trials that have recently taken place touching these offices give evident proof. These trials have proved that there exist among us "manufacturers of angels," who destroy by the hundred children that they have taken to bring up; that the offices have been places of debauchery, corruption, and disease. The midwives and the offices receive women about to be confined; and those who desire to positively conceal their confinement are completely at their mercy, as are also the children who are intrusted to them.

4. *Day Nursery*.—This institution, in spite of the invaluable advantage that it offers, has not yet met with the appreciation among us that it deserves. It is a sort of asylum for the little ones who are too young to be received into other institutions,—children between the ages of two and five. The manners and customs of the people of the country do not approve of this institution and look askance at it. The first day nursery was established at Warsaw in 1877. In 1855 and 1859, nurseries had been founded for nursing children, which were, however, closed in 1870 for the reasons given above. Since that time, these nurseries have been neither enlarged nor imitated.*

5. *Infant Asylums and Schools*.—The nurseries of which I have spoken lead to the infant schools, which are the first stage of guardianship for minors. But, as it will be necessary for me to speak frequently of these schools, I may as well first refer to our Société de

*The day nursery of Ziota Street, the one referred to, receives about twelve children daily. In 1880, the expense of maintaining it amounted to 1,239 roubles, 97½ kopecks. [A paper rouble is equal to fifty cents, and a kopeck to half a cent.]

Bienfaisance. For, as a large tree puts forth great branches from its trunk, so from this society spring different protective institutions, and, above all, various kinds of schools for children.

The Société de Bienfaisance of Warsaw is the oldest of our protective institutions, except the Brotherhood of St. Benon, of which I have heretofore written, and which, on account of its varied functions, its lack of progress as well as its decadence and neglect, cannot be outlined here. (See *Bulletin of the Society of Prisons of Paris*, January, 1880.) Who knows, however, if our Société de Bienfaisance did not, after all, spring from this Brotherhood of St. Benon, and if it has not adopted its chief functions? Our society was founded in 1825. Above all other institutions, it extends the widest protection to poor children. As concisely as possible, I will mention the institutions formed at its suggestion and which still remain under its authority.

To this organization belong, then, the infant schools already mentioned. Warsaw has now 26 under the direction of this society. They give shelter to 4,200 children of both sexes, each one having about 161 children. In 1880, in 22 such schools there were about 2,228 children. There are, besides, an orphanage for boys with 152 inmates, and one for girls with 60 inmates, and a temporary home for girls which cares for 38 orphans (statistics of 1880). On Dec. 27, 1849, certain regulations for the direction of infant schools were introduced, containing seventy-seven paragraphs. This was the basis of the statutes relative to infant schools. In 1876, new and more detailed regulations were sanctioned, called "Instructions for the Direction of Infant Schools." This included twenty-one titles with one hundred and twenty-eight paragraphs. As, however, they did not correspond to our new points of view and to our new requirements,—especially as relating to pedagogy,—the Société de Bienfaisance intrusted to a special committee the care of preparing a new scheme. That is not yet finished.

6. *Kindergartens*.—The reputation of Froebel gardens—which, however, are not yet acclimatized among us.*—led us to introduce into our infant schools this new method of instruction, but modified in many respects. Through the efforts of the president of the society, Prince Thaddeus Lubornirski, savings-banks have been established near the infant schools for the children. Children of from three to seven years of age, who have a certificate of poverty signed by the guardian of the asylum or of the district, are received into these asylums without distinction of religion.

*So far as I know, Warsaw has but one private institution of this kind.

There are, besides, four infant schools especially for Jewish children. The children are in these schools throughout the day, Sundays and holidays excepted. The care of them is confided to mistresses and submistresses appointed by the Société de Bienfaisance. Sisters of Charity are employed in only two schools. Each school is under the care of invited protectresses and of the members of the Société de Bienfaisance who form the tutelary council of the school.

The children are taught the elements of the catechism, the Lord's Prayer, the Bible, arithmetic, reading and writing, recitation, singing, gymnastics, occupations (according to Froebel's method), and, in some of the schools, drawing. Examinations take place yearly.

According to the first regulations, the children in the school were to be boarded; but the total lack of funds for this purpose does not permit it, and the children go at noon to dine with their relatives. The income of the schools at the end of 1880 amounted to 90,800 roubles, the expenses for the care of each child to five kopecks: just now, it amounts to much more.

To the Société de Bienfaisance belongs also the school for orphan boys by the name of Stanislas Jachowicz, who was the founder of it, formerly a teacher, a well-known children's poet, and author of charming fables for youth, whom he loved with all his heart. I omit the history of the development of this institution, and will only say that to-day it occupies a building formerly the convent of the P. P. Dominicans. Orphans having neither father nor mother are received here, if they have no other guardian. They must be at least three and not more than nine years of age. They are brought by the district guardians and examined by an examining commission. Children between nine and twelve can be received only by special permission of the bureau of general admission of the society, which also decides as to the reception of half-orphans. The pupils are taught religion, reading, writing, arithmetic, various practical branches, singing, gymnastics, drawing, and the trades. The care of the children is good: those who are sick are sent to the salt waters of Ciechocinek. In 1880 there were 137 boys. During the year, 36 new pupils were received: 14 were placed in shops, and 2 returned to their friends. There are now about 159 in the establishment. The cost of each child per day amounts to about 29.10 kopecks. The society interests itself in the boys sent to shops, and places in the public schools and in other establishments those who are distinguished by their abilities. Similar to this is the school for orphan girls, founded in 1842 by an officer of the old Polish army, Ignace

Poptawski, who was known as the "father of orphans." The institution is in the building of the Société de Bienfaisance. Its object is to bring up girls to be good servants. The conditions of entrance are the same as for boys. The old building is not suitable for this purpose, and ought to be rebuilt. In 1880 there were 66 girls in this school, with an average daily attendance of 63. The daily cost amounted to 23.14 kopecks. Each girl on reaching the age of sixteen is put at service, the society, however, still protecting her. Orphan girls may be intrusted to moral families at an earlier age, if they are desired. The oversight and instruction are committed to Sisters of Charity, and the management to guardians, who, unfortunately, too often neglect their honorable duties.

The third establishment under the care of the Société de Bienfaisance is the temporary asylum for orphan girls, which is a branch of the orphan girls' school, under the care of the society. There are about 38 girls, and the cost of each per day amounts to about 19.06 or 22.88 kopecks.*

7. *Institute of St. Casimir.*—An entirely separate institution is the establishment for orphan girls of the Institute of St. Casimir at Warsaw. The founder of this institution was Louise Marie de Gonzague, wife of Ladislas IV., and afterward of Jean Casimir, his brother, who in 1651 brought from France the Sisters of Charity (the Gray Sisters), to take care of the sick, and to whose care were confided poor orphan girls at the time of the plague. The Institute of St. Casimir, richly endowed by our kings, prospered and flourished. The number of orphans that it could receive was unlimited. There were sometimes from 180 to 200. That was up to 1842, when a special council was established, which limited the number to 120 girls, of whom 100 should be maintained at the expense of the State and 20 at private expense, for about 45 roubles yearly. At present there are 100 orphans at the institute, of whom 15 are kept at a private expense of 75 roubles annually. Since 1878, the institute has been under the direction of the Municipal Council of Benevolence, which fits the orphans for the institute according to certain conditions required by the law. The children must be legitimate, not younger than eight or nine and not older than ten, and well-behaved. Orphans have the first right, after which come very poor girls. They are taught reading, writing, and feminine employments. They remain in the insti-

* There is still another establishment, by the name of "Mary's Family," for fallen girls. It does not belong to the Société de Bienfaisance, however, and has no permanent foundation. For reasons easily understood, it is not very well known nor of much reputation.

tute till they are sixteen or eighteen, when they return to their families, if they have them, or to strangers; or, sometimes, they go into service, receiving always from the institute a trifling dowry. The lady superior and the Sisters of Charity always look after the girls who have left the Institute of St. Casimir. From the establishment of this institute up to 1842, the Sisters of Charity received 6,400 orphans, of whom 5,828 were educated and placed at service. Between 1842 and 1852, they placed 277 girls. Within the space of two hundred years, 458 have died. Up to 1852, the cost of each girl was 4 kopecks a day: now, it costs from 2.6 to 7 kopecks.

Besides the institutions already mentioned, there are others supported by other religious confessions. The Evangelical Augsburg Communion maintains a ward for orphans in the Asylum for the Aged and Orphans, established in 1846, and an infant school. Orphans and, exceptionally, half-orphans, and sometimes very poor children of Protestant parentage are received. The children remain until confirmation. They receive no instruction; but the little ones are sent to the infant schools, and the older ones to the parish schools of the Protestant church. In 1880, about 37 children were there daily. The complete cost of each child daily was 3.5 kopecks, the food costing less than in Catholic institutions of the same kind.

To the institution which stands highest among establishments of this kind, children of all religious faiths are received gratuitously or on the payment of 30 kopecks a month. In 1880, it was attended daily by about 100 children from the city and by about 30 from the orphanage. The children receive their board. In 1881, the Evangelical Communion opened a home for orphans of the reformed orthodox parish for both sexes. At first, they limited the number to 10 children. If the number of orphans allowed is not full, they take half-orphans. They are taken at the age of four, and remain till confirmation. They receive board, but for instruction go to the parish schools. We have not yet received the complete report of this institution, nor of the orthodox infant school, the Nicholas, supported by the Russian Benevolent Society.

Besides the schools for Jewish children under the care of the Société de Bienfaisance of Warsaw, there is a division for boys in the Old Men's Home, founded in 1840, and also one for girls, day scholars, near this same home. In the boys' division, orphans between the years of five and nine are received gratuitously or on the payment of a small sum by their relatives. The children learn reading, writing, religion, arithmetic, and a trade. The service is by persons of both

sexes. In 1880 there were about 33 children daily. There are 60 permanent places. The daily cost amounted to 37 kopecks. It is culpable to lodge orphans in the same building with the old men, although from 1877 to 1880 only one child died. The infant school is intended solely for girls to the number of 50. In 1880 there were more than 51 daily. The girls receive board by the payment of half a kopeck a day. The daily expense of each girl is 9 kopecks, more than in any other infant school.

8. *Children employed in Shops and Factories.*—The only law that regulates the relations between apprentice and master is that comprehended in the precepts and regulations of the guilds, contained in the resolution of the lieutenant-general of the kingdom, of April 21, 1819. The precepts published in 1863 and 1867 modified and perfected these. All these laws, however, leave the child in the shop at the pleasure of his master, without reference to the requirements of to-day, or to educational, social, or economic necessity. In 1871, more severe laws were made touching Sunday-schools for apprentices. Still, in 1879, out of the whole number of apprentices, more than 13,000, not more than 6,500 were found enrolled as pupils. That led to the new law of 1879, according to which no apprentice who cannot show a certificate of having passed through, at least, two classes of the Sunday-school, can become a journeyman. The state of these schools is pitiable, on account of the crowding and because of the children having to work beyond their strength. I have no statistics of the number of children working in factories, but there are certainly a great many; and they work beyond their strength, having the same number of hours as adults,* and in the saddest conditions and in opposition to the plainest laws of health. Up to this time, we have had only the law of 1872, limiting the hours of children working in tobacco and snuff factories. Attention is now being called to this grave subject. Different questions are coming up for discussion in reference to it in Russia and with us; and efforts are being made to regulate, in some legal way, the relation between apprentice and master. In consequence of this agitation, several sanitary commissions have made special regulations with committees to visit the factories and look after their observance. They also look after the lodging, food, and general care of the minors so employed.

9. *Children's Hospitals.*—The first hospital exclusively for children was founded in 1869, through the efforts of Dr. Sikovski, by private

* From twelve to fourteen hours a day through the week. The children earn very little. In the cloth manufactories, for example, they do not earn more than 18 kopecks a day [about nine cents].

contributions. It was called Dr. Sikovski's Health Establishment for Sick Children. In 1871, Dr. Sikovski petitioned the government for a place for a second similar institution; and having obtained the place, Alexandrya Street, and the sanction of the authorities, with the aid of the Countess Alexandrine Potocka and other benevolent persons, he established a new and magnificent hospital, into which, in 1875, they removed the sick children from the old building. Children of from four to fourteen years of age are received. The hospital has seventy or more permanent beds. Within the last few years, from 600 to 700 children have been cared for annually. The mortality oscillates between nine and twenty-four per cent. Children that are known to be destitute are received gratuitously: others pay 15 kopecks per day. The cost is from 45 to 79 kopecks a day. There is a dispensary connected with it for out-door patients.

In 1878, a hospital for Jewish children was opened at the expense of the Berson and Bauman families. It is an imposing building. It receives children from three to thirteen years old. The mortality is about twelve per cent. It takes about 300 children annually, and has also a dispensary for out-door patients. We have as yet no hospital for children with contagious diseases, nor for little ones under three years of age; although we know that the mortality is greatest and sickness most frequent among the very youngest.

10. *Summer Colonies.*—The question of colonies was agitated in 1882 among the members of the Société de Bienfaisance. The desire was to send to the country invalid children of very poor people, between the ages of nine and fourteen, in groups of ten to fifteen, to strengthen them. The sojourn in the country was to be from four to five weeks. Dr. Fritsche, by his energy, carried the plan so far that Warsaw this year sent a hundred more children to the country than the city of Paris did.

11. *Institute for the Moral Correction of Children.*—This establishment was formed by the afore-mentioned Brotherhood of St. Benon, which was in existence as early as the seventeenth century. Lack of space and time forbids me to give its history. Under its old name of Institute for Children Morally Neglected, it was founded by the efforts of Count Frederic Skarbek in 1825; and the statutes of the institute were sanctioned the same year. According to those statutes, it is for boys and girls of from six to fourteen years of age arrested by the police on account of vagabondage or for begging, or for children whom the guardians of the establishment have sent there. Parents who bring a certificate of the incorrigibility of their children

can place them in this institution. The child having been once received does not leave until it has been completely reformed. They learn the rudiments of trades, and after coming out are placed in shops, where the institution still looks after them. The maximum number of children that can be taken at any one time is 50. The statutes that were sanctioned in 1835 are still operative, except those relating to night-cells, which have been found to be impracticable and even hurtful. With the organization of a general tutelary council of benevolent establishments, and of special councils, according to the law of 1842, this institution obtained a special council, of which Baron Frenkel, who is still living, was made president. In connection with this institute there was, at the outset, a house of refuge and workhouse for adults. In 1845, they were separated; and in 1851, thanks to the munificent offer of Countess and Count Pustowski, the institute was built upon the Mokotovo estate offered by them, not far from Warsaw, where it is still. In 1878, a small agricultural colony was established near the institute, and the number of children who could be received was raised to 60. From the opening of the institute in 1830 up to the end of 1880 there were 1,458 pupils. Of this number, 863 were placed in shops, 348 were returned to their relatives, and 196 left for various reasons. In 1879, a special committee, with the professors of the University of Warsaw, and Mr. Miklaszewski, member of the committee on agricultural colonies, devised new statutes for the institute; and it was in consequence of this that the name was changed to the one by which it is now known.

12. *The Society of Agricultural Colonies and Refuges for Apprentices.*—The statutes of this society, sanctioned Feb. 20, 1871, indicate its purpose and aim. It divides minors of both sexes into two classes: first, those condemned by the courts; and, second, mendicants and vagabonds. The object of the society is the moral correction and reformation of these two classes, and providing for them comfortably. The means for attaining this end are correctional colonies and educational refuges. In 1876, the first institution of this kind was established at Studzieniec, eight leagues from Warsaw, for minors condemned by the courts. In the statute, it is simply called an agricultural colony, to avoid even in the name anything that could touch the honor of the children who are sent there. The number of pupils cannot exceed 200. The colony of Studzieniec closely resembles the similar colony of Mettray in France, only it is divided into smaller families of 15 each, living in cottages. These cottages, with the church and the house of the director, form a rectangle. We have

already 180 places taken, and we expect by the end of the current year that the 200 places allowed will be filled. The system of management and of education is varied. Besides the division into families there are also classes, graded according to the moral progress of the children as well as according to their progress in study and work. Agriculture and the branches of industry connected with it form the principal occupation of the boys; but such trades as shoemaking, tailoring, and carpentry are also taught. The colony receives healthy boys of from ten to fourteen years of age, of all religions, who are sent by the courts for not less than two years. They can remain until they are sixteen. This colony is especially intended for boys; but, in the future, it is planned to establish a similar one for girls. As at present 3,000 minors are annually condemned by the courts, and as this colony can receive but 200, it is readily seen how many children are deprived of its beneficent guardianship; although, of course, all this number need not be placed in colonies, especially if we include those that the courts declare to be irresponsible, and with whom we have nothing to do. These latter belong in other institutions, under other guardianship; although, unfortunately, those other institutions, in spite of the approbation of the authorities and the statutes sanctioning them, are not yet open. According to the statutes already mentioned, these refuges should receive all orphan minors who are mendicants and vagabonds in the common meaning of the word, not in its strict significance, as begging, like other misdemeanors, is punishable under the law. All children are to be received there, of both sexes and all religions, who have no guardians. They must not be under six nor over fourteen years of age. They must remain at least two years, or up to the age of sixteen. After that time, they are returned to their relatives. To these refuges are also sent incorrigible children committed by their parents for correction and reformation. The authorities that have the right to place children in these refuges are the courts, the administrative authorities, the police, and in general any authority that watches over the safety of the country. The rules for admission are the same as at Studzieniec. The care and management are also the same as there. The committee chosen by the society visits the correctional colony, and also these refuges for education and guardianship. Up to this time, the results at Studzieniec are admirable. From more than 100 — in 1883, 115 — children who have left the colony, not more than four have been re-arrested by the courts. But suppose that even more should behave badly, that a fourth or even a half of the pupils should prove incor-

rigible,—which is too pessimistic a way of looking at it,—even then Studzieniec would do good service, and amply repay all the trouble and expense.

Of all the institutions mentioned, only Studzieniec and the Institute for Moral Correction are penal or repressive. The refuges are preventive in their nature; although, to a certain extent, they are also repressive, as, for example, in the case of children committed by their parents. These repressive institutions are, however, in their results preventive; for their object is completely to reform minors, and thus to prevent the corruption of adults, and in general to prevent and ward off evil.*

In order to prevent misery and crime among minors, the idea arose, in 1880, of founding a new society, to be known as the "Friends of Childhood." This, by ill chance, did not obtain the sanction of the government; but its plans show how wide and high were its aims. The society wished to develop and to encourage the institutions already in existence, and to attempt certain active measures for the public good not yet tried. The projected society desired to interest itself in childhood from the time of conception, in its cradle, and in its earliest steps in the way of life; sometimes addressing itself to the child, sometimes to the mother, aiding her in her poverty or abandonment, and assuring the child, in case of need, a place in the home for foundlings, in the day nursery, or in the infant school; to watch over its wet-nurse or the woman who should take it to board; to protect it in the workshop or the factory; to come to its aid in school; to consider all its material and moral needs; to care for and heal sick and feeble children, to replace them with family or friends when possible; and, finally, to raise them when fallen, if it could not save them from falling. All classes and professions and all callings were to share the benefits of this useful and charming institution. But, as this vast and imposing project did not receive the sanction of the government, it is now proposed to establish, at least, certain divisions of such a society, having special duties and functions which shall bring about some of the results hoped for.

The picture here drawn, although pale and incomplete, will yet give some idea of what is now being done for the protection of minors in Poland. I ought to add — since, from what I have said, it may appear that what is done for them is confined mostly to the city of War-

* The colony of Studzieniec is really what is known elsewhere as a penitentiary establishment, while the refuges correspond more to reform or industrial schools. But many of the other institutions under the Société de Bienfaisance are also industrial schools, *par excellence*.

saw—that this activity is really much more widely extended. The lying-in hospitals, the foundling hospitals, and Studzieniec serve for the entire country. Societies like the Société de Bienfaisance are also found in the other palatinates. The parishes are likewise required by law to look after their orphans and poor, and the hospitals scattered throughout the country, also care for sick children and orphans. The lack of centralization and the lack of regular statistics, and the difficulty and even impossibility of a private man like myself making minute investigations, deprive me of the means of presenting a complete survey of methods and statistical figures touching general benevolence and specially touching the guardianship of minors in our country. But I think that even this sketch may be of some little use; and, at least, it may serve to prove that we are following the steps of others in this way, and are extending our efforts in all directions and everywhere where misery and need call for relief from society or from individuals.

REFORMATORIES FOR YOUTH IN SWEDEN.

BY G. F. ALMQUIST,

INSPECTOR-GENERAL OF SWEDISH PRISONS.

1. *Reformatories exclusively for young criminals of the male sex from all parts of the realm.*

The agricultural colony of Hall, beautifully situated on a creek of the Baltic, at a distance of six kilometres from the small town of Södertelje, in the department of Stockholm, was opened in January, 1876, and gives shelter to 142 boys at present. The age for admission is from ten to fifteen, and the sojourn at the colony until the age of nineteen to twenty. Up to the present day, 68 pupils have been dismissed reformed and fit for steady service as agricultural laborers or as workmen in various trades; and only a small number of them, about ten per cent., have relapsed into crime or given cause to any serious recriminations.

The pupils are employed in the cultivation of the colony's land, containing eight hundred hectares (equal to about two thousand acres), and are trained as able agriculturists; but they are taught likewise, for the sake of variation and according to their individual tastes, common trades by competent teachers. Particular stress is laid on constant corporal work and on occupation in the open air, as being the most efficient means against vicious propensities. Under

the constant influence of a practical Christian spirit, the pupils are kept at the Reformatory until they have acquired strength of character; and this seldom happens before they have attained the age of about twenty. This is considered of great importance.

The colony, which was founded by the influence of the present chief of the Royal Board of Penitentiaries, and which has been maintained by a private company,—the Association in memory of King Oscar I. and Queen Josephine,—founded on June 13, 1873, obtained on the 24th of October, 1879, its articles from government, and is getting from the public treasury a subsidy of 50 öre (equal to 13 to 14 cents) per day for each pupil, besides which the communities contribute annually 150 to 200 crowns (equal to from \$40 to \$50) for each pupil during five years. The annual expenses of the Reformatory amount to about 50,000 crowns with its present number of pupils (about \$13,500).

The capital, which the above-mentioned association has invested in the landed estate of Hall, and the buildings, plant, and stock, represented, on the 30th of June, 1883, a value of 344,668.30 crowns (about \$92,000). The debts amounted, at the same period, to 129,680.29 crowns (or about \$35,000), for the sinking of which debts Parliament has voted appropriations at its last two sessions.

2. Local reformatories for criminal and neglected boys.

The Reformatory of Råby, situated near the town of Lund, in the province of Malmöhus, and founded by Col. Baron G. Gyllenkrok, was opened for the admission of pupils Sept. 26, 1840. The usual number of pupils is 32, principally coming from the province of Malmöhus. The age of admission is from eight to fourteen. The pupils are dismissed after having finished their preparation for confirmation, usually at the age of sixteen; and they are then provided, by the aid of the institution, with a situation. During their stay at the Reformatory, the pupils receive much school tuition, and are likewise occupied at basket work as well as being assistant laborers in agriculture and horticulture. This establishment owns about twenty-five hectares of land (equal to sixty acres). Its assets amount to about 235,000 crowns (equal to \$63,000), half of which is rented.

The Reformatory of Hissingen, close to the town of Gothenburg, for misguided and neglected boys from the town of Gothenburg, was founded in 1847, and gives shelter to 25 boys, who, besides school tuition, are occupied at smith and carpenter work and at some gardening. They are dismissed immediately after confirmation, at the age of from fifteen

to sixteen, and usually get situations as seamen. The assets of the establishment, including buildings, plant, and a small landed property, which is let out to farm, amounted, at the end of 1880, to 158,753 crowns (equal to \$42,500).

The Reformatory of Foläsa, situated close to the railway station of Bankeberg, in the province of Ostergöthland, and intended for the reception of 18 young criminals of from twelve to seventeen years of age from the province of Ostergöthland, was opened in 1865. The landed property has an extent of seventy hectares (about a hundred and seventy acres), the half of which is cultivated almost exclusively by the pupils. They usually stay at the establishment three years. At their dismissal, they take situations as peasant laborers. The establishment is amenable to the Provincial Parliament. Its assets amount to about 34,000 crowns (equal to \$9,000).

The educational establishment of Fröberg's Institution of Norrgård, close to the town of Calmar, was opened in 1875, and gives shelter to from 60 to 70 neglected boys from the town of Calmar and from seven adjacent rural communities. The age of admission is from eight to twelve. A small number of well-behaved older children, up to the age of fourteen, are admitted. They are dismissed after confirmation, at the age of from sixteen to seventeen. The establishment owns about forty hectares (equal to about a hundred acres), in the cultivation of which the pupils are employed, as well as at tailoring and shoemaking. Industrial work, however, is here held of secondary importance compared with school tuition. The assets of the establishment amount to 800,000 crowns (equal to about \$215,000).

The Reformatory of Mäshult in the parish of Skällinge, province of Halland, for depraved children of that province, was opened in 1881 for 12 pupils. Halland's Provincial Diet founded this Reformatory in 1878 by an allowance of 20,000 crowns (\$5,350), and continues to support it by annual subsidies.

The Reformatory of Skede, in the province of Jonköping, for 10 depraved children from the parish of Alseda, has been carried on since 1855, on a landed estate, Skede, valued at 6,000 crowns (equal to \$1,600).

3. *Reformatories for neglected girls.*

The Reformatory of Mamre in the town of Norrköping for 37 neglected girls.

The Malin Gyllenkrok's boarding-school at Räby, near the town of Lund, for 10 girls.

Besides these are to be mentioned the following institutions for the purpose of providing shelter and care for neglected and depraved youth :—

Queen Josephine's Reformatory in the town of Wexiö was established in 1847 for the purpose of affording care and education to poor depraved children, by boarding them out with proper persons. Out of the interests of its capital, the establishment pays the annual expenses of educating 25 children, mostly girls.

Prince Gustaf's Association and Maria's Institution of Borås and Queen Louisa's Association of Wenersborg, which own a capital of about 150,000 crowns (equal to \$40,000), provide for about 70 neglected children from the said towns, by boarding them out.

The Knapé's Orphan-house, near Uddevalla, provides education and elementary tuition for 36 boys. It owns a capital of 600,000 crowns (\$160,000).

Bergian's Institution, near Uddevalla, provides education for 20 boys. It owns a capital of 180,000 crowns (equal to \$48,000).

Richert's Institution at Skara, owning a capital of about 20,000 crowns (equal to \$5,300), provides education for 12 boys.

The appropriations for the workhouse and reformatory of the province of Södermanland have been employed hitherto almost exclusively for the benefit of the sick of the province. They are managed by the Provincial Diet, and amount to about 70,000 crowns (equal to \$18,600).

Von Leesen's gift of 1875, of 100,000 crowns (equal to \$26,600) to the town of Norrköping for the building of a reformatory for depraved boys, is managed by the Municipal Board.

Within the town of Stockholm there are various educational institutions for poor and depraved as well as orphan children. Of those maintained by the Municipal Board there is one for 80 depraved boys, and one for 50 depraved and unprotected girls.

The Freemasons' Orphan-house, established in the middle of the last century, has been removed to Christineberg, near Stockholm, and affords education for 120 children of both sexes. Its accumulated funds amount to 700,000 crowns (equal to \$186,000).

Prince Carl's institution, founded at the Jubilee of 1829, in memory of the introduction of Christianity into this country by Ansgarius, 1,000 years back, provides for 55 boys and 25 girls. It has a capital of 525,000 crowns (equal to \$140,000), and is supported by a company. It has been removed into the country, a few miles from Stockholm, to the estate Gälön, where the children are boarded out in

groups of three or four with each farmer, who, in lieu of rent, gives board and care to these children. On the main farm there are schools where the pupils receive tuition and are taught handicrafts.

Murbeck's Institution, founded by a clergyman, named Murbeck, in 1747, provides education for 45 orphan girls. It has a capital of 360,000 crowns (equal to \$96,000), and is supported by annual subsidies from a company.

Lindgren's Ragged School, founded fifteen years ago by Mr. Lindgren, a teacher, for the purpose of gathering boys found on the public ways in distress and exposed to vice, and providing for them board and education, gives shelter to 30 boys. It is supported by the Municipal Board of Stockholm.

All these institutions of Stockholm, affording education and skill in handicrafts and domestic work, keep the children until their confirmation, at the age of about sixteen. They are then provided with situations.

Malmqvist's Institution, founded some twenty years ago by Mr. Malmqvist and his wife, provides education for 80 girls. It is supported by annual voluntary contributions.

The Reformatory of the Swedish Diaconal Institution provides board and education for 12 fallen girls. Being carefully educated as well as trained in all kinds of handiwork, the pupils are enabled to gain their livelihood in a decent way.

NORWAY.

The Reformatory of "Tofte's Gave" has been removed since 1877 to Helyeön on Lake Mjösen, not far from the town of Hamar. It was founded March 20, 1847, by donations from Mr. Andreas Tofte, a merchant, and belongs to the municipality of Christiania. It gives shelter to young criminals and depraved boys from all parts of the country. The age of admission is from ten to fifteen. The pupils are kept until their confirmation, at the age of sixteen or seventeen, and then usually become seamen. During their stay at the Reformatory, they are employed at various trades and at cultivating the land, about thirty hectares (equal to seventy-four acres). The usual number of pupils is between 60 and 70. The assets of the institution amount to about 100,000 crowns (equal to \$26,800); its debts, to about 70,000 crowns (\$18,800).

The Reformatory of Ulfsnäsöen, outside the town of Bergen and belonging to its municipality, was founded in 1882, and gives shelter to 30 depraved youths from the town of Bergen. The value of the

assets of the Reformatory amounts to about 90,000 crowns (equal to \$24,100).

THE TREATMENT OF JUVENILE OFFENDERS.

BY ARTHUR G. MADDISON,

SECRETARY OF THE REFORMATORY AND REFUGE UNION.

It is not easy to determine under what conditions an offence against the law becomes in a juvenile delinquent crime. Yet the most successful efforts for the prevention of crime in England have been those put forth to rescue children from its power. Very much of our success in this matter seems to be traceable to three principles that govern our treatment of juvenile offenders:—

I. Dealing with them as children; *i.e.*, making a clear distinction between them and adults.

II. Classifying this section of offenders.

III. Encouraging and utilizing voluntary organizations and institutions.

Now, if it be true that our success so far has been largely due to the observance of these three principles, it may be worthy of consideration whether, in order to obtain still greater success, further improvements should not be made framed on the same basis; and our inquiry will become more interesting and important, if we are able to observe that, under certain circumstances, our treatment of juvenile offenders is a little out of harmony with these principles.

In both the Reformatory and the Industrial Schools Acts, the nation has virtually said, Schools of discipline and industry are, as a rule, the place to which to send juvenile offenders under sixteen years of age,—not prisons. Here the line is drawn for a difference of treatment to be observed; and, now, two questions present themselves:—

I. Is the line kept to in practice?

II. Is the line drawn at the right place?

1. In reply to the former question, we cannot ignore the fact that, rather than send a boy to an industrial school or a reformatory, magistrates often think it better to send him to prison (either with or without so many strokes of a birch rod). The efficacy of wholesome corporal punishment under certain circumstances is undeniable, and the desirability of accompanying it with due time and opportunity for calm reflection will probably be equally evident; but the advantage

of appointing the prison to be the place of detention and the jailer to be the boy's guardian during the period of his contemplation is, to say the least, questionable. The effects of such a mode of treatment are not such as to commend it. A child sent to a reformatory or industrial school receives a careful training and is kept in sight by friends — not jailers — for at least three years after discharge. A boy sent to prison, however, without also being sent to a reformatory, is, when discharged, an outcast. He is disqualified for entering the navy as well as for any voluntary training-ship or institution. He has received no training, and the prison brand renders it most difficult for the philanthropic to help him. Many of these boys, it may be, are duly impressed by the corporal infliction they have undergone; and economy, it is urged, has been observed by this method of dealing. Nevertheless, many of these have, after all, to be sent to reformatories; and not a few who were regarded as duly impressed are, from time to time, found in the ranks of the destitute, and then the fact of their having been in prison prevents their being aided. This might be avoided in two ways: by magistrates having the power to send children to a workhouse, industrial school, or some other institution, to be there detained and have their flogging; and by the establishment of a training-ship for boys who have been in prison.

At present, boys are sent to prison and flogged for offences generally of less gravity than those for which they would be sent to an industrial school, without entering a jail. It is not urged that children under sixteen should never be sent to prison nor that they should never be flogged, but that, in the case of a light offence, it is better to confine them in some other establishment; while, in those cases where imprisonment may seem necessary, some supervision should be exercised over them after leaving prison, and, where necessary, a proper training provided by the same power that has taken from the child the privilege of obtaining that training from charitable sources.

2. Is the line dividing juvenile from adult offenders drawn at the right place? The reformatory system has been so successful that we are tempted to ask, Could it not be extended? The hobbled-hoy delinquent is a troublesome and yet a hopeful subject. After sixteen, he is difficult to manage, even in the reformatory. Nevertheless, it is sad to see a young fellow of seventeen, just discharged from prison for his first offence, cast upon the world, with all his hopes crushed and the gates of ruin opened before him. It may be said, We have discharged prisoners' aid societies to which he may apply.

But, still, we might do better to treat youthful discharged prisoners in a different way from what we do adults. By so doing, we should be following within reason that principle of classification that has brought so much success hitherto. What, then, is wanted is a government or certified training-ship for boys over twelve and under eighteen, who have been discharged from prison; and to this ship the older inmates of reformatories requiring a naval training might, under certain circumstances, be transferred, and other boys might be sent, whose age now prevents them being sentenced to a reformatory. In Paris, they have a boys' prisoners' aid society, which does much good: we need a similar institution.]

We have said that the first principle of right dealing with juvenile offenders is to treat them as children; and therefore, where the child has no parents or, worse still, has thoroughly bad parents, the State steps in *in loco parentis*, and, as in the case of the convict mother of children under fourteen, it directs them to be sent to an industrial school. This, at first sight, seems an excellent arrangement. But when we discover that the State will not pay for the maintenance of these or any other children in an industrial school while they are under six years of age; and again, that when a child is discharged from an industrial school, after the State has educated and trained it for perhaps ten years, then the worthless parents may resume their authority and do all they can to interfere with and injure the child's future prospects,—we are disappointed. These are two features in our present method of dealing with juvenile offenders which seem out of harmony with the true principle. Thus, a boy of five years of age was, not long ago, found living with his grandparents in a state of utter destitution. His father was undergoing a sentence of twenty years' penal servitude, and his mother a sentence of ten years; yet he could not be placed in a certified industrial school, because he was under six years of age, and the home office would not contribute to his maintenance.

As an illustration of the evil arising from allowing such parents to resume the control of their children as soon as they attain the age of sixteen, and then to interfere with the disposal of them, I need only quote the practical opinion of one of the managers of the largest industrial school in the land:—

“Our experience at Feltham is that the obstructiveness of the parents is the great stumbling-block in the way of the success of the industrial school movement. These parents are worthless, and yet they are allowed to retain that ultimate control over the boys. The

parent refuses and shirks in every way his responsibility ; and yet, at the last moment when a boy is shown to have some talent for instrumental music or wishes to go to sea, the worthless parent comes forward and says, 'You shall not transport my dear boy, you shall not enlist him, I insist upon his coming home.' Thus, almost all our efforts are utterly thrown away, and the money of the rate-payers has been wasted. Although we do not give up all hope that the good seed will produce more or less good effect, still the special training which the boy has enjoyed is entirely thrown away by the obstructiveness of the parents. Perhaps the parent knows that the boy will come home with a good set of clothes, and that his work will be worth more. The boy comes home, the clothes are pawned, the father turns him out into the street, and the major part of our efforts are thrown away."

Doubtless, the subject of parental control is a delicate one in this free land ; yet if the State has had to rescue the child from its parents, say at the age of six, and keep and train it till sixteen, the State should not then be hindered by those parents in apprenticing the child according as those who have had the care and training of it during all that period may think most desirable.

So again, looking to the parental duties of the State toward juvenile delinquents as children, it does seem a little inconsistent that it should refuse to rescue them from the vortex of crime because they have not arrived at the age of six.

There are also one or two other improvements needed in the carrying out of the second principle laid down ; namely, that of classifying juvenile offenders, in dealing with them. At present, they are dealt with under three classes :—

1. Those under sixteen convicted of an offence punishable with penal servitude or imprisonment are sent to reformatories, after undergoing at least ten days' imprisonment, unless, being under twelve, it is their first offence ; and, in that case, they may be included in class

2. Which also comprises begging and wandering children, and destitute children having parents undergoing penal servitude or imprisonment ; also, children declared by their parents to be uncontrollable. They are sent to certified industrial schools.

3. We have a somewhat arbitrary class who are dealt with summarily by flogging and imprisonment, to which allusion has already been made. This class, perhaps, more particularly includes cases of boyish cruelty and obstinacy ; as the throwing of stones, attempts to upset trains, and cruelty to animals, etc.

4. A fourth class has already been suggested in this paper ; namely,

boys between twelve and eighteen discharged from prison, without having been sentenced to a reformatory.

The chief further improvement needed in this classification is that with regard to children between twelve and fourteen convicted of a first offence punishable by imprisonment. At present, such a child can only, at best, be placed in class 1, and sent to prison for at least ten days, and then to a reformatory. There is doubtless good reason for making the distinction of imprisonment between the Industrial School and the Reformatory inmates. But it is difficult to see any good reason in sending a child of twelve or thirteen to prison for a first offence for a period of ten days previous to passing him to a training institution. And the result of the present classification of these children is most inconvenient. A magistrate is frequently placed in this dilemma: he is loath to send so young a child to prison and a reformatory for a first offence, and yet the case is too old to be sent to an industrial school, except under the sixteenth section of the act, as uncontrollable by parents; and the result is the law is often strained to make it a sixteenth section case. In Middlesex, the remedy for this has been provided so far as regards boys. A special act permits boys, on a first conviction, to be sent to the Middlesex Industrial School up to the age of fourteen; and the managers of that institution find these cases no more troublesome than their other inmates. Seeing, then, how well the act works in Middlesex, it seems most desirable that the classification peculiar to that county should be made general.

One of the most pleasing features in our method of dealing with juvenile offenders has been the utilization of voluntary effort. The government from the first has availed itself of the accommodation provided in reformatories and industrial schools established and conducted by the benevolent. The great question of juvenile reformation has been hitherto recognized as one which no government can deal with effectively without the aid of the charitable and religious. And so it still is and always must be: we may and should continue to improve the method of treatment of our juvenile offenders; but there will ever be a large residuum — call it wastrel population, if you will — which voluntary Christian effort alone can reach.

CHILD-SAVING WORK IN ENGLAND.

OBJECTIONS TO SENDING CHILDREN TO REFORMATORIES
ON THEIR FIRST CONVICTION.

BY T. B. LL. BAKER,

HARDWICKE COURT, GLOUCESTER, ENGLAND.

I have been asked by Mr. Randall, chairman of your Committee on Child-saving Work, to write a paper on the opinions I have long held on committing boys to reformatories, as a general rule, on the first conviction. I cannot refuse to state my own opinion, derived from thirty years' practice in my own country. But I trust it may be understood that I by no means pretend to say that the opinion which I have formed in England would be applicable to America.

When we commenced reformatory work in England, most of us — for the feeling was not universal — took, I believe, a somewhat different view from those of other countries who had preceded us in the work. While they appeared to consider it their first and almost only object to reform the boys committed to their care, we considered this to be our second object; our first and most important being to withdraw from society the boys who had been — as was the custom of former days — repeatedly convicted and punished by short imprisonments, who had become hardened and skilled, and were able to corrupt and instruct others in the art of stealing. The effect of this searching out and separating from the innocent all the old offenders was very great. In 1856, when we commenced to operate generally in England and Wales, 13,981 children under sixteen years of age were committed to prison. During the next four years, only about 1,000 in each year were admitted to reformatories; yet, in 1860, the total convicted had fallen to 8,029, being even then a saving of nearly 6,000 children per annum from committing offences, while we only received, and therefore could only have reformed, 1,000 per annum. In 1883, after twenty-three years' increase of population, the total convicted was 5,275.

This effect was evidently produced, not by reforming the small number of boys sent to us, but by preventing any child from continuing in a habit of crime long enough to become hardened, skilled, and successful to a sufficient degree to excite the emulation of others and to tempt and train them to follow a bad example.

Sir James Stephen has laid down as the requisites of a good measure: 1. That the end be good; 2. That the means be such as will probably secure the end; and, 3. That the means be not too costly. This may teach us to examine the end, the means, and the cost.

Now, first, What is our end or object in establishing a reformatory? This question is worth more consideration than it often receives. Is our principal object the benefit to be conferred on each of the ten or so hundred boys whom we receive? Or is it the benefiting of a thousand boys whom we have never seen by removing from them more fearful danger than we contemplate when we pray that ourselves be not led into temptation?

We should carefully consider which of these objects we have in view. The first will satisfy Sir James Stephen's first requisite. It is no doubt a good object. That the means are such as will probably secure the end may perhaps be granted, though, unless you in America have closer supervision than we use, cases will happen, though rarely, in which a boy nearly innocent, who has thoughtlessly taken some trifle,—scarcely realizing that he was stealing,—may learn more evil from another boy than he would have learned at home.

But, when we consider the third requisite, can we quite justify the giving to a boy for his sole benefit, merely because he has done wrong, a sum of money or money's worth equal to £60, or \$300, when you will not give \$5 to the best boy in the town?

I say £60, of course, in uncertainty. I cannot say what may be the cost in America; but, in the Reformatory which I managed as long as my health permitted, the average detention of boys has been little under three years, and the cost above £20 a year. And I think we are lower both in cost and detention than most English schools. From a few reports I have seen, the American institutions appear to be higher than ours.

But if, on the other hand, our chief end be the preventing the progress in crime of a boy who, but for that prevention, would probably corrupt, instruct, and lead many others in evil courses, then we may safely say that not only our end is good, but that the simple fact of keeping him for five years either in a reformatory or under surveillance is a safe means of securing that end, and the cost of £60—though it would be high for somewhat improving one boy who would probably have done very well without it—is by no means too high for preventing six boys from falling into dire temptation. But then

comes the question, Is it probable that a boy who has taken one step in the downward road, who has once entered a career of crime, will be likely to turn out an honest man without a long and careful training in a reformatory?

This is a question on the probabilities of which many on this side of the Atlantic argue long and learnedly, proving to their own satisfaction that a boy detected in and punished for one crime can never recover, but must become an habitual criminal. I do not attempt to calculate probabilities, but am content to take facts as they exist.

Our statistics of crime are carefully kept, and we have pretty accurate returns of all the convictions. I take the returns for the five years 1879-83 of all children convicted under sixteen years in England, Wales, and Scotland, and find the average to be 6,899, of whom 1,613 were admitted to reformatories and 5,285 were punished by imprisonment or birch. Of those admitted to reformatories, 888 were on first conviction, while 725 had been punished for previous offences. In other words, 5,285 were punished by imprisonment or birch only, yet the total relapses of each year were but 725; and these were sent to reformatories.

I append a table of the above-mentioned figures, which may interest the few who care for statistics, and show an improvement in our practice and a pleasing decrease of crime in the face of an increasing population. I must explain that, in this statement, I give the figures for England, Wales, and Scotland, our statistics not giving in all matters separate calculations for England and Wales:—

	1879	1880	1881	1882	1883	Average 1879-83.	Average 1873-77.
Total convicted in England, Wales, and Scotland,	7907	6767	6340	6718	6763	6899	9310
Admitted to reformatories,	1630	1656	1487	1674	1620	1613	1647
Simply imprisoned,	6277	5111	4853	5044	5143	5285	7663
Admitted to reformatories on first conviction,	1002	905	805	850	878	888	981
On second,	428	512	459	550	504	491	482
On third,	151	154	150	187	167	161	132
Often,	49	85	73	87	71	73	51
Total relapsed,	628	751	682	824	742	725	666

Now, I would ask, are we quite justified either in our duty to the public in sending seven boys to reformatories at a cost of £420 (\$2,100), in order to prevent one from relapsing; or in our duty to the boys themselves in sending the seven to be brought up in "an admirable institution," when six of them might have been brought up

at home? I was much struck by a sentence I found in the report of the Cleveland (Ohio) Orphan Asylum:—

“In these institutions, large numbers of friendless children were reared to health and strength. This seemed humane and Christian. But very slowly, for the world learns wisdom slowly, it began to appreciate that children reared in an institution were ill-fitted for successful competition with the world. The early habits of care and responsibility were wanting.”

There is great wisdom in this. Institutions, whether reformatories, hospitals, or prisons, are most valuable for those who require them, but should not be used carelessly. If you have a noble hospital, fitted at great cost to receive those suffering from serious illness, and are asked to receive a boy who has cut his finger, and whose mother is too busy or idle to tie a rag round it, and the cut may inflame and after a time mortify and cause death, would you at once receive him? Or would you say, “He will probably get well; but, if the cut inflames much, come to me again”?

Some appear to value institutions so highly that they would regret their failure from whatever cause. I value them highly while they are required; but I would gladly see hospital, prison, or reformatory fail for lack of patients for either. It has been a great happiness to me to see of the five prisons in this county, which in my youth were flourishing and well filled, four now closed and the fifth not half full. And if our numbers in reformatories were reduced, and that in which I for thirty-two years have taken great interest were closed, I should rejoice as soldiers triumph when they have won the victory and are disbanded.

Another question rises on which much depends. If we do not send boys to reformatories on the first conviction, what are we to do with them? In England, until four years ago, we sent them to prison; and, as in all our prisons they were kept separate and contamination nearly impossible, I believe that ten days or a fortnight of such treatment was the best punishment we could inflict. Three months of it had a rather hardening effect on the mind: they got used to it, and had less dread of a return to it; but a fortnight left an almost indelible impression that they had done something very wrong, and that it would be very unpleasant to risk another punishment.

In 1880, our Home Secretary, Sir W. V. Harcourt, well-meaning, but rather impetuous, took up the idea that it was very cruel to send small boys to prison, and persuaded all magistrates to whip those under fourteen,—six strokes of birch rod, if under twelve, twelve

strokes for those above, instead of sending them to prison. I did not think it would answer; but I had no clear data to show against it, and let it pass. And, as the numbers committed continued to decrease, it was generally supposed to be a success; but on examining the numbers whipped there appeared to be a large increase of offences in 1881-82. The returns, however, for 1883 have since appeared, and show a decrease. So the matter still may remain in doubt.

Where separation in prison cannot be had,—alas that there should be any States, European or American, where such does not exist!—the cost of a few separate cells for short terms would not be great; and one month in separation would cost less than two or three in association, and be every way better. Where, however, it cannot be had, I cannot from experience say what would be the best punishment for a first conviction. I should think that the Massachusetts probation system would be the best, with perhaps an improvement recently suggested by the eminent advocate, M. Berenger (*sénateur de France*), and proposed by him to the Senate to become law; namely, that the judge before releasing the prisoner should pronounce the sentence which will be inflicted in case of relapse, before the punishment of the second offence. Though in much I agree with a paper by Mr. Burchard, of Wisconsin, on indeterminate sentences, I cannot hold that in punishment for offences “the unknown and uncertain have more terror for men than the known and the certain.” It appears to me that all are disposed to think their own offences more venial than others judge them; except in the case of old offenders, to expect less punishment than they receive. I believe that the great merit of the “progressive punishment system,” which M. Berenger hopes to establish in France, is that it enables any one who has been once convicted to know with some degree of certainty before he commits a crime what his punishment will be, if caught, and thus, as he observes, “meets the requirements of a wise punishment by combining the minimum of pain with the maximum of deterrence.”

There is yet another point that requires consideration. I have said that, as a general rule, I object to sending boys to reformatories on first conviction; but I quite allow that there must be important exceptions to the rule. I have always consented to receive boys who had set fire even to a heap of straw or who had placed stones on a railway,—not because I believe there is great turpitude in the minds of such boys, for I have usually found them to be careless and weak,

with little intention of doing wrong; but we wish to create a public impression that offences which, even though begun in sport, are likely to occasion serious results, must be strongly repressed. The boy, when at the Reformatory, will be by no means unhappy, but, before he goes there, he dreads it more than any other punishment; while the parents in England are required to pay somewhat toward the maintenance of their children in the Reformatory. To this, they have a great dislike; and we thus enlist the fears of the parent in preventing the child from doing wrong.

But there are many other cases in which I think a boy may be wisely received on first conviction. We have just received such a case. A boy under twelve years old, son of a well-to-do laborer in Bristol, wandered eight miles from home, found a pony and cart, drove it thirty miles away in two days into another county, sold the goods which he found in it, assuming the name of the owner, which was written on the cart, and inventing a plausible tale. A youth of such skill and courage is likely to turn out very well or very ill, and I think it worth £60 to get a fair hope of the former.

It is difficult to draw the line and to say where boys should be admitted or refused. A royal commission, however, which sat two years ago on the subject of reformatories, has recommended (I believe on my suggestion) that no magistrate should commit to a reformatory on first conviction, without stating the case to an authority of the home office, who would declare whether such a course be desirable. I hope that this may become law. Any one of our numerous magistrates, having but few such cases before him, would hardly decide; but one official, having the statements of all such cases before him, would have little difficulty. By the above table, it appears that in England more than half the boys now in reformatories were received on first conviction. Far too many are indeed so received; but many have been frequently detected, but not prosecuted. Our reformatory inspectors, however, consider that the number admitted might well be reduced by one-third.

While we wish to reform those who have fallen, it is yet more important to prevent others from falling. In some few cases, the fall of the child is the direct fault of the parent, more often the effect of carelessness, often of ill-directed care. Sometimes, where we can find no fault in the management, we attribute the fault to misfortune. But neither fault nor misfortune makes it right or desirable that a parent should actually make a profit by his son's offence. It is the duty of a father to support his son. The cost of the son's food and clothing,

even at home, is an appreciable sum. That sum at least, unless he be himself dependent on public charity, he ought to repay to the government that maintains the Reformatory. If the parent be fairly able to pay more, even to the whole cost, he should be compelled to do so.

This should, in the first instance, be enforced as an act of simple, strict justice ; but that is by no means the most important point. We know that most men are more or less actuated by self-interest. Is government justified in making it the interest of a parent to get his son placed in a reformatory, to make an actual profit by his son's crime ?

Our system in England is that, when a boy is admitted to a reformatory, notice is sent to the home office on a form giving all particulars of age, height, previous convictions, and address of parents. The office then orders the police to summon the parents before the magistrates, who adjudge the sum to be paid. The police receive the money weekly or monthly and pay it at the home office, or, if it be not paid, summon the parent before the magistrates, who, unless good cause to the contrary be shown, send him to prison.

The amounts received are, indeed, very small. The total cost of the Reformatory is £126,000 per annum. The receipts are £6,000, or about five per cent. of the whole ; yet even this small payment, I have little doubt, disposes many bad parents to take more care of their children, and, were our magistrates to enforce the law more rigidly, many more children would be saved from crime.

Let me conclude with a hope that I have offered some reasons :
1. For thinking that we are not right in giving \$300 of public money to a bad boy merely for his own benefit, though it may be well worth \$300 to prevent his doing serious harm to others ; and 2. That, by compelling parents to do what is only a simple duty in supporting their children when in reformatories, we can save those children from commencing crime. Such action is not a cruelty, but a kindness.

INDUSTRIAL AND TECHNOLOGICAL TRAINING.

BY SARAH SANDS PADDOCK,

PRESIDENT INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, NEW YORK.

ANY one watching the signs of the times cannot fail to see that industrial and technologic training is one of the leading issues of the day. There is undoubtedly a growing demand for industrial schools in the United States, although there is much diversity of opinion in regard to the agency by which they should be established and conducted. Many claim that the government should establish State industrial schools. Some desire special schools, giving only technical instruction in various branches of handwork, and some would have the trades-unions, or guilds of artisans, train their own apprentices, while others are equally emphatic in their desire to have a workshop in every existing public and private school.

While a larger number of industrial schools are now in operation than people are aware of, the public at large greatly requires enlightenment upon the urgent need for this kind of training. Within the limits of this paper, it will not be possible to do more than base an argument in its favor upon a brief outline of the history of industrial education, and a statement of some of its practical applications.

The term "industrial education" is used to designate the training of pupils, not only in the common branches of instruction, but in certain industrial or business pursuits. An industrial school, in the widest sense of the word, denotes any school for teaching one or several branches of industry. Those of a higher grade are more generally classed under the head of technical schools. The idea of providing for the instruction of children in manual labor appears to have originated in the desire to enable poor children to earn their daily bread as early as possible.

In England, Chief Justice Hale, as early as 1676, recommended to Parliament the establishment of an industrial school in every parish. In 1705, Locke laid before the English Parliament a plan to counter-

act the spread of pauperism, proposing to this end the establishment of labor schools in each parish, in which poor children from three to fourteen years of age were to be provided with lodging, board, support, and occupation.

The bill failed, as did also one proposed in 1796 by Pitt.

In Italy, Canon Odescalchi founded, in 1686, a great charitable institution under the name "Ospizio Apostolico di San Michele," which, besides other departments, comprised an industrial school for boys and girls. The girls were instructed in needlework; and a number of workshops, among which they were at liberty to choose, were fitted up for boys. This example was followed by many other institutions; and the instruction of girls in housework and needlework and of the boys in some mechanical trade became a general feature of the Italian orphan and foundling asylums.

The first practical attempt in Germany was made by A. H. Francke, who introduced instruction in turning and glass-grinding. Hecker, the founder of the first real school of this character, trained his pupils in cultivating mulberry trees and in raising silk-worms. Froebel, the founder of the "Kindergarten," emphasized the importance of trained industrial occupations in the common schools.

Needlework has been almost universally introduced into the common schools of Germany, and in some other countries. Two afternoons of each week are set apart for the instruction of girls in sewing. They begin when only six years old, and first use paper. From plain sewing, mending, and knitting, the scholars are advanced to fine needlework, tatting, crocheting. They are also taught tapestry work.

The Austrian Kinderman introduced industrial instruction into the common schools, and succeeded, in the course of a few years, in organizing industrial schools in more than two hundred places.

The following account of the Austrian system of weaving-schools is taken from a monthly review of "Technical and Scientific Education," and will be found of interest:—

The Austrian Ministry of Commerce, which supported a number of purely technical weaving-schools in Bohemia and Moravia, conferred with the authorities of the Austrian Museum and the government of these provinces upon the question as to the manner in which a beneficent influence in an artistic sense could be exercised in these schools of industry. The result of these deliberations was the establishment of schools for drawing and practical instruction in weaving. This effort extended itself to operatives in their own homes and in fac-

tories, and finally reached the capital itself, where qualified teachers bestowed particular care upon this special branch of industry, in which about eight hundred thousand people found employment.

There are twenty-four such weaving-schools in the different cities of Austria, the most important of which is that at Reichenburg, which is supplied with qualified teachers by the Ministry of Commerce. The textures made at this school are considered by many unrivalled. While textile fabrics are the chief branch of study, to these are added, as higher branches, wall-decoration, painting on porcelain, and glass-enamelling; inlaid work in wood, metal, and ivory; drawing for lithographic purposes; and xylography. Special care is bestowed upon copying of tissues, tapestries, embroideries, etc. Another class is devoted to the education of students in cabinet work, modelling, ceramic art, and metallurgy. The term of instruction is four years,—two years in the elementary class and two years in the special branch school. There are fixed terms for instruction.

At Cortena, in the Austrian Tyrol, there are two admirable industrial schools, where the girls are taught gold and silver filigree work. The boys are taught designing, carving on wood, and the making of "intarsia," or inlaid woodwork.

In Athens, a Greek gentleman, feeling the importance of the education of Greek women, who until recently have had no educational advantages, started an industrial school for women and girls, where they are taught different branches of needlework, hand-loom weaving, and the designing of fine silk dress and sash fabrics and curtain hangings, also the designing and making of Turkish and Persian rugs. Trades are thus secured to the pupils, and the school is supported by their labors.

In England, before a grant is made to an elementary school, the educational department must be satisfied that the girls in the day school are taught plain sewing and cutting-out as a part of the ordinary course of instruction. No fancy work is allowed during school hours.

Throughout Great Britain, in all the certified industrial schools, reformatories, and refuges affiliated to the "Reformatory and Refuge Union," seventy-two district industrial occupations are pursued by the inmates. In carrying out these industries, steam power is used in many of the institutions, and the inmates are taught the care and management of the engines and machinery. The ordinary domestic work of the Home is in all cases done by its occupants.

The following is a list of the industries, with the number of institutions in which each particular industry is taught:—

<i>Name of Industry.</i>	<i>Number of Institutions in which the In- dustries are taught.</i>	<i>Name of Industry.</i>	<i>Number of Institutions in which the In- dustries are taught.</i>
Wood chopping,	67	Blacksmith's work,	10
Carpentering,	53	Brick laying,	2
Cabinet making,	14	Turning,	6
Boot and shoe making,	126	Book binding,	2
List-slipper making,	4	Riddle making and wire work,	2
Broom-handle making,	3	Hair teasing,	9
Tailoring,	131	Stone cutting and mason work,	3
Tinsmith's work,	2	Plumbing, glazing, painting, and gasfitting,	8
Farm and garden work,	123	Button carding,	1
Seamanship,	6	Bristle sorting,	2
Jewelry and precious stone setting,	1	Sack making,	1
Relief stamping,	1	Church and other embroidery,	14
Rag and paper sorting and collecting,	1	Manufacture of flock,	1
Knitting,	111	Nail straightening,	1
Shrimp picking,	1	Power-loom weaving,	1
Essential oil distilling,	1	Crochet, netting, and fancy needlework,	45
Bread making and baking,	71	Dairy work and farm-yard management,	56
Washing and laundry work,	209	Carpet beating,	4
Plain needlework,	205	Cart making,	5
Upholstery,	11	Glove making,	1
Brush making,	6	Lithographing,	1
Basket and hamper making,	7	French polishing,	4
Paper-bag making,	12	Rope making,	3
Mat making,	18	Rag cutting,	1
Printing,	15	Manufacture of peat fuel,	1
Boys sent to morning places to clean knives, boots, etc.,	16	Cooperage,	1
Harness making,	3	Hairdressing,	1
Errand or messenger boys,	13	Chair caning,	13
Work in neighboring mills and factories,	14	Band musicians,	13
Net making,	6	Corn grinding,	1
Straw plaiting and working,	4	Road repairing,	1
Dress making and millinery,	31	Bed and mattress making,	2
Lace making,	10	Rug making,	3
Match-box making,	8	Picture-frame making,	2
Manufacture of fire-lighters,	5	Bandbox making,	1
Brick making,	2	Tassel making,	1
		Fretwork,	2

In America, it is extremely difficult to know what to do with that improvident section of our community, the drift of idlers. Our hope for the future lies mainly in the proper training of the young in industrial habits, that they may not lack the industrial capacities in which the shiftless jobbers are so deficient. Skilled labor only being in demand, the present most imperfect state of industrial education

of the masses is largely to blame for the great number of unemployed in our midst. The trades-unions and similar organizations having, in a large measure, done away with the apprentice and journeyman of former days, the young people of to-day have little or no opportunity to learn trades and become skilled workmen. In a special report on the "Industrial Education of the United States," issued by the Bureau of Education, this statement is made:—

Now that apprenticeship is actually gone, the question of the practical education of the industrial classes in their handicrafts and occupations is, more than ever, for public consideration. There is no prospect of a revival of old-time apprenticeship. Foreign skilled labor ought not to be made a reliance. Our youth ought to be, and must be, trained to occupy leading places in the arts and manufactures, by means of special instruction given in schools organized for the purpose. Any system of schools or instruction which fits pupils to enter intelligently upon the duties of life and the work of a trade promotes the practical education of the industrial classes.

The almost infinite subdivision of labor which exists in our modern industries is responsible for a large amount of deteriorated boy and girl labor. Learning, as the young do, only in part how to make any one thing, the demand for which expires with a contract or fashion, it is no wonder that the intermittent unemployed class is largely recruited from their ranks. In view of the emergencies of the market, it may be this state of fluctuation in labor cannot be avoided; but it would be well if parents and guardians would watch more closely than they now do the movements of their children, as they shift from one employment to another without the acquisition of such experience as may be rendered marketable through life.

In some States, a law passed for the purpose has withdrawn a large amount of very young labor from the market. The wisdom of this law is unquestionable, but it is much to be regretted that a thorough industrial education in connection with the usual school instruction has not been provided for the children reached by it.

A child, if properly drilled, by the age of fourteen can have acquired a sufficiently competent knowledge of some trade to secure a situation, and to enable him or her to work up into a thoroughly self-supporting man or woman.

Mr. Charles G. Leland, in his most instructive and practical book on *Industrial Art in Schools*, says:—

Of late years, almost simultaneously, the men who are interested in education have asked one another: "How is it that we have taught

the young nothing but reading, writing, and similar arts? We have given what we call culture to youth, and they leave school as little fitted to make a living as on the day they entered it." It is very natural, indeed, that this complaint should rise from the growing republicanism of the age; and it was quite natural that those who inspired it should demand that children should be taught to make a living while learning to read, write, and cipher. Of course, by "making a living," working at a trade was understood; and the first effort in consequence was to teach trades.

In another place, he further says:—

Industrial art, to be taught in schools, need not, and should not, be limited to ornamental work. Carpenter work, joinery in its rudiments, or in fact any branch of practical industry, may be taken up as soon as the pupil is fitted for it. It is characteristic in this; that the system, as I conceive it, is capable of being introduced into every public or private school in the country, or into any institution where there is a preceptor who has some knowledge of drawing, with sense enough to apply it according to certain elementary handbooks of art.

I have found that a great deal of the opposition or indifference to art industry in schools comes from men who, because they are themselves ignorant, do not like to have the whole world trained to what they are too idle or stupid to master. Others argue that, as their children are not intended for pursuits into which art knowledge enters, therefore no children need or ought to learn anything of the kind. In the face of these and many other equally wise objections, such as are generally urged at meetings where the subject is discussed, the facts remain: that art industry can be taught without infringing on other branches of education; that children, while at school, can learn to design and model so well in a few months, with one weekly lesson, as readily to obtain places as under-designers in factories; and that, thirdly, they can even produce wares which will sell.

But there is a final argument which cannot be resisted. It is that there is a tremendous demand among the manufacturers of Europe and of this country for decorative artists and artisans. It was thought in England that the great art schools of South Kensington and Manchester, and such places, would afford a supply; but it has been as a drop in the bucket. The industrial schools have been as inadequate. For it is not only a supply of artistic goods that is needed, but also a taste for them,—a manufactory and a market as well as a greater demand; and, to meet this double want, there must be extensive radical art education among the people.

There is a final plea to be offered for the introduction of industrial art into all schools. It is that, by making handwork a part of every child's education, we shall destroy the vulgar prejudice against work as being itself vulgar. This we greatly need; for there is no country in the world where manual work is practically in so little respect, or where there are so many trying to get above it, as in this American republic.

The great importance, also, of industrial night-schools for those who are employed during the day is too evident to need discussion. The technical instruction of an immense majority of mechanics is altogether inadequate. Such schools would be of incalculable benefit to young laborers who desire to perfect themselves in different branches of trade. These schools should be upon a thorough business footing, and without the slightest suggestion of patronage or charity. Connected with them a labor exchange, and a well-devised system of labor loans, and deposit banks would be a strong inducement for workmen to attend the evening classes and perfect themselves in some branch of industry.

It is gratifying to learn, from the reports of the United States Commissioner of Education, that the number of asylums for children in which arrangements have been made for opening an industrial department is increasing. The great importance of this subject cannot be too strongly urged upon the attention of all who found, support, superintend, or carry on institutions of this kind. The Kitchen Garden, which is so perfectly adapted to the needs of its inmates, has pre-eminently its mission in these institutions.

Except in Massachusetts, there are no laws in this country requiring industrial or technical training; but we are glad to find that, in the majority of the reformatory institutions in the United States, trades are taught. The reports of these institutions indicate the teaching of forty-two distinct industries, while, as we have seen, seventy-two are taught in similar institutions in Great Britain. Ordinary trade instruction has so far proved a great advance; but, unquestionably, the Russian technologic system, as taught in the School of Mechanic Arts in Boston and elsewhere, if introduced into the reform and industrial schools of this country, would result in far greater progress than has yet been attained. Under this admirable system, the boy not only learns a trade, but he acquires it quickly. At the same time, he learns, by successive and easy stages, scientific principles underlying all trades, so that when he leaves school he can readily adapt himself to pursuits other than those in which he has been especially instructed.

While the feasibility of such technologic training might once have been justly questioned, it has now passed beyond the experimental stage, and receives the indorsement of distinguished specialists engaged in juvenile reformatory work. It has been stated by one of these gentlemen that, for example, in the simple matter of forging, it is his belief "that the boy with his forty lessons in forging, so far

as his knowledge of the art and his ability to apply what he has learned are concerned, is quite the equal of the boy who has spent his two or three years of apprenticeship under the usual conditions."

Seeing that this system of technologic training is the best in use, it is a matter of regret that there are any hindrances to its general introduction. In the history of juvenile reformatory institutions, we find that those first established in New York and three other States adopted and still adhere to the baneful contract system, although it has been set aside or disapproved everywhere in Europe and by the majority of institutions in America. This system, which subjects the labor of the child to the control of contractors, must necessarily be carried on in the interests of the contractor instead of for the benefit of the child, and cannot but be opposed to any industrial or technologic training which has solely in view the thorough training of the child.

The Committee of the New York State Board of Charities, appointed in 1879, after a most thorough examination of the contract system as originally applied, reported the following as their conclusion:—

Your Committee express their entire disapproval of the per diem contract system of labor as a feature of a reformatory institution.

They are sustained in this view by the experience of most modern establishments of this character, and by the testimony of most of the contractors' representatives themselves, whose opinions, being based on long intercourse with boys under the system, give great weight to their condemnation.

Your Committee believe that trades or technical instruction should be conducted only under the direction, management, and responsibility of the House, without the mediation of contractors or their employes; and that a greater variety of employments be introduced, and, if necessary for that purpose, a greater extent of ground be procured. Your Committee believe that the State is not disposed to exact a self-supporting return from a reformatory institution for children, or to rely upon the yield of labor as an essential factor to be considered in the reformatory work.

The conclusion of the Committee is of wide application, and may be thus tabulated:—

1. No contractor should be permitted to obtain a footing in this class of institutions.
2. The superintendent must have the supreme control of the discipline and the industries of his institution.
3. Trades and technical and industrial instruction should be systematically and thoroughly taught.

4. A greater variety of employments should be introduced.

A significant fact, and one it would be well for those especially engaged in reformatory work to consider, is that in Wisconsin, where technologic training is given in the reform schools, the number of prisoners in the State-prisons averages three hundred and thirty-six, or one to about every four thousand of the population; while in New York, where the technologic system of training is not used in reformatories, the average proportion is one to one thousand six hundred and seventy-two.

It is stated by the president of the Wisconsin State Board of Charities that "this low average of crime can be attributed largely to the reformatory methods used in the industrial schools, saving the boys from becoming criminals."

It is not to be inferred from what has been said that technologic training is more suitable for reformatories than for other schools. We believe it should form a part of the education sought to be given in all schools.

In this connection, we would especially urge divorcing the reform school to which criminals are committed from industrial refuges for innocent unfortunates. There *is* a class of children more unfortunate than vicious that is in danger of falling, through homelessness or bad association, and who need only homelike care and training: little wanderers without a home, and without any proper guardianship or visible means of subsistence; destitute orphans or those whose parents are undergoing penal servitude or imprisonment; children turned over to the "authorities" by step-parents or guardians, who are unable to control them; in short, those on the verge of crime, innocent still, and readily saved.

The indiscriminate commingling of the criminal with the unfortunate class in our refuges cannot but prove injurious to the latter, and it is questionable whether there is a corresponding benefit to the former. Hence we urge independent schools for each class, and both upon the "open" or "cottage" plan.

We certainly cannot improve upon the Creator's design; namely, that of the "family system." True family life is what these poor waifs and wards lack and what they so much need. It is a system founded upon natural and fundamental principles. In the home are found the most impressive influences, which are indelibly fixed upon the child's mind and character.

This is even more true of girls than boys; for the home is pre-eminently woman's sphere, and it is especially desirable that every

girl should be trained in the various branches of work pertaining to the household. This can be readily done while she is also being trained in such other useful industries as will enable her to become as self-supporting as her brother. There is no excuse for allowing a girl in a refuge or reformatory or orphan asylum to become so institutionized that she is of little or no value in family service. There are now excellent systems of domestic training which thoroughly fit girls to perform all the duties included in home life. Happily, these systems are gaining in favor; and domestic economy has its place in the curriculum of schools of the highest standing for young ladies. Into many of these schools throughout this country and abroad, the Kitchen-garden system has found its way, and is doing as excellent a work in this line as the Kindergarten in its field.

New and carefully prepared school primers and more advanced text-books on domestic work have been prepared, and deserve general use. Schools adopting the methods advocated in these books can hardly fail to give their pupils the knowledge essential to a good housewife.

The history of the French movement for the industrial education and employment of women furnishes the most striking and at the same time the best example of what can be done in this direction. This movement dates from about the year 1862. Up to that time there existed no organization in France for aiding women to compete with men in any occupations demanding more than manual work. Female employment was mostly confined to inferior grades of industry, requiring little skill, and, as a necessary consequence, offering small remuneration. The attention of thoughtful men was called to the subject; and in May, 1862, there was formed in Paris an association called "*Société pour l'Instruction Professionnelle des Femmes.*" This society commenced its operations very modestly, having for its capital about \$250, and five pupils. At the end of the first six months there were forty pupils, and at the close of the year the school had greatly increased and was found to be self-supporting; for it was laid down as a basis of the system that the pupils should pay for their instruction, the sum being fixed at eight francs, or about \$1.60 per month. The whole success rested upon rigid adherence to this rule. The work has steadily increased year by year, so that a system of examination had to be instituted, designed to favor the most deserving candidates.

A report of this society says:—

At the opening of the school in Rue de la Perle, and for a number of years afterwards, the system followed was to divide the pupils into four classes. The first class, through which all passed on entering, supplied a general education, serving also to show the capacity of young women for any particular occupation; the second class, called "Cours de Commerce," furnished a training for purely commercial purposes; the third class, "Cours de Dessin," supplied the want of those who sought an education to be applied to industrial purposes; the fourth class, called "Atelier Confection," gave practical teaching in millinery, dress-making, and all kinds of needlework.

To these were added after a while several other classes, in which pupils were prepared more directly for certain trades. In one of them, which proved very successful, wood-engraving was taught; in another, painting on porcelain and on ivory; and, in a third, the design and manufacture of jewelry and of various "Articles de Paris." More and more as the institution developed itself, it was found necessary to prepare its pupils for definite occupations. The plan was adopted of placing such of the young women as desired it in workshops and ateliers, where they might gain practical knowledge of the business they wished to acquire. They did not cease on this account to remain pupils of the school, but only quitted it for a fixed number of hours every day, to supplement their theoretical knowledge with that of practice. The result of all these arrangements was a success far beyond the most sanguine expectations of the original promoters of the scheme.

The institution started in the Rue de la Perle not only turned out a large number of educated women,—all of whom found employment the moment they left it, the demand for them being greater than the supply,—but it produced a movement which, spreading all over France, gave rise to a vast number of institutions of the same kind. Of the schools for teaching particular trades, one of the largest and most successful is the "Atelier de Devidage de la Soie," established by the large silk manufacturer M. Hamlin, in Paris, with branches at Lyons and St. Etienne. The Paris school has two hundred and fifty pupils who are completely instructed in the art of silk weaving, including the designing of patterns.

Other trades are similarly provided. The goldsmiths and jewellers established the "Ecole de Dessin et de Modelage" for women, which is training a great many to fill not only the low, but the higher and highest posts in an industry of immense importance in the French capital. There is still another school for the manufacture of metals, still another for repairing clocks and watches.

Owing to the efforts of some of the most influential of the "Sociétés de Patronage," two important State establishments, the celebrated manufactory of the Gobelins and the National Printing Office, have in recent years been thrown open to women. The fact that women should have been admitted among the highly trained artisans of these places, artists in the first case even more than artisans, is a striking testimony to the value which the industrial training of woman has already reached in France.

Female labor spread very greatly in four other branches of Parisian industry, besides those already named, in the years from 1860 to 1872. These were the trades of watch making, of the manufacture of musical wind instruments of all kinds,—flutes, trumpets, etc.,—of piano and harp manufacture, and lastly of surgical instruments and bandages. The increase of women in the watch-making business during the twelve years was no less than 2,740 per cent.; while, in the manufacture of wind instruments, it amounted to 6,600 per cent., and in pianoforte and harp manufacture to 11,266 per cent. No less than sixty per cent. of the artisans were women.

This lengthy quotation from the report of Mr. Watherston shows in part what has been accomplished in France for the industrial education of women. Would that it might thoroughly incite us to imitate the example set us by the earnest few who initiated this grand work for women!

How much better would it be, if only those who showed a decided aptitude for the "higher education of women" were admitted to a normal school with the view of fitting them to become teachers, while the others, who also must earn a living, were provided with technical schools, where they could pursue a commercial course or perfect themselves in some of the many branches of industry in which their French sisters excel so wonderfully! We can but be encouraged by what has already been accomplished and is now being done for the masses of those who must support themselves. With our growing population there is imperative demand for technical industrial training, and we should make strenuous efforts to effect its introduction wherever it is not given. New avenues would thus be opened to those who must seek employment as soon as they finish their common school course of study. The present channels are overcrowded by those who, when they are thrown upon the world, have had no instruction which would fit them for some handicraft. They are consequently obliged to follow in the crowded lines instead of supplying the steady demand for skilled artisans.

In the United States, Massachusetts takes the lead in industrial education. The legislature of that State has ordered its introduction into all the common schools. The report of the Committee on Industrial Schools, made to the Board of Education of Boston, recommends that sewing, which is now taught in three classes of girls' grammar schools, be carried forward into all the classes by a gradual progression, care being taken not to allow it to interfere with their other studies. The proposed course of instruction includes shaping and fitting all ladies' garments, the requisite materials to be furnished by the city.

The Massachusetts Institute of Technology ranks first in its instruction in mechanic arts.

The Industrial Education Society of Boston has several schools under its care. One of the most novel and interesting is the "Whittling School." A boy's propensity to whittle is here turned into a most useful channel. The report says: "The object of the school was not to educate cabinet-makers or artisans of any special name, but to give the boys an acquaintance with certain manipulations which would be equally useful in many different trades. Instruction, not construction, was the purpose of this school."

A number of admirable industrial schools, not connected with asylums or public schools, are now in successful operation in Boston, New York, Philadelphia, and other cities.

The New York Legislature in 1875 passed a law (Laws, 1875, Chap. 322, Reports) entitled "An Act relating to Free Instruction in Drawing." It designates State normal schools, city schools, and union schools in which this instruction shall be given; but, upon inquiry, it is found that, with the exception of normal schools, the law has not taken full effect outside of the city of New York. This is the nearest approach to a law requiring industrial and technologic training in New York. It is hoped legislators in all our States may be aroused to the importance of enacting laws requiring industrial training at least in all institutions supported by the State, and of providing some means for the enforcement of such laws.

There can certainly be no question as to its being the duty of our public instructors to give that training which will best qualify their pupils to be the most useful and self-supporting citizens. They should at least fit them to be able to return to the community an equivalent for what they have received from the State.

Nor does this apply alone to those who are educated at the public expense. There can be no greater fallacy held by Americans (who are pre-eminently working people) than that technical training is only for the working classes. The sooner we dignify labor by putting it into its proper place, the sooner shall we get rid of our erroneous notions about it. In the vicissitudes of life, we know not what may be the lot of any. Knowledge of a practical character is of immense value to every one, and no one can afford to be deprived of it.

To those interested in solving the perplexing problem of how to get rid of the growing pauperism which threatens to fasten itself

upon us as it has done on the older nations of Europe, this subject of industrial education is of vast importance; for it strikes at the root of the evil, and, if persisted in, might be the lever to lift us out of the difficulty. To those acquainted with the subject before us, the outlook is more encouraging than one would at first suppose. To give an adequate idea of simply the volunteer and private effort in behalf of technologic and industrial training in the United States would make a large and interesting volume. There are in New York City alone fifty-two schools and institutions giving this instruction. One of the most ingenious is an outgrowth of the Kitchen Garden, the principles of which have been adapted, by Mrs. Briant, to a system for instructing little boys in the elements of agricultural pursuits. They are taught, by using a large box of earth and by means of miniature ploughs, harrows, rakes, hoes, etc., the processes of preparing the ground, sowing the seed, caring for it, gathering in the crops, taking the corn or wheat to the mill, grinding it, and finally leaving it in the kitchen for the bread-maker. All this is accompanied by questions, answers, songs, and whistling to a piano accompaniment. So the work of the farmer, like that of the housemaid, is made bright and attractive to children.

For asylums or orphanages in rural districts, nothing could be better for the very little boys than this early training in the pursuits they would naturally follow.

In the twenty-fifth annual report of the trustees of Cooper Union of New York, one can but be impressed by the wide-spread influence of this remarkable school. The number of pupils who have entered the various classes during the past year has been 4,327. Of these, 373 entered the evening scientific classes; but this number, by entering two or more classes in science, made the number of pupils in the several classes 1,467; 1,956, the evening art classes. 496 pupils have been admitted to the woman's art schools, and about the same number declined for want of room. 200 have been admitted to the young men's literary class, 200 to the class in elocution, 76 to the class in telegraphy, and 54 to the class in phonography and type-writing. Of this whole number of pupils, 2,074 remained throughout the year in regular attendance upon their classes; and a large majority of these obtained certificates of proficiency and other testimonials of excellent attainment in their several studies. In no one school in the country have there been more skilled artists and artisans trained than in this thorough and useful school.

The Working Men's School attached to the Society for Ethical

Culture is very thorough and admirably conducted. The principal, in his report, says: "The aim of this school is to combine industrial training with ordinary school work, and to use it not only for creating mechanical skill, but also for educating the mind. Laying the foundation of its work in the kindergarten, its effort is to carry it forward in graded courses of two years each, the work lessons being given in the last two hours of two days in each week. In the first two years, covering the period from seven to nine years of age, potter's clay is used instead of wood, the school-desks with suitable tools serving for work-tables. At nine years of age, the plan is to begin work on wood with a small saw; at eleven, to begin to handle the scroll saw, in wood first and afterward in zinc; and, at thirteen, to begin instruction in carpenter work, with a complete outfit for a workshop. From the simplest household utensil, the pupil is to grow to more extensive and difficult work, from which, after two years' training, he may advance to carving and turning."

Any information regarding any of these schools can be had from the Industrial Education Association of New York, the object of which is to disseminate information on industrial training and to endeavor to stimulate a general public opinion in its favor.

Those desiring to study the subject of Industrial Education would do well to procure a copy of the special report of the United States Bureau of Education on Industrial Education in the United States; but there is no more valuable and extensive source of information on this subject than the report of the Royal Commission on "Technical Instruction" in Europe, recently presented at the command of her Majesty to the Houses of Parliament in London. One cannot read these volumes without feeling that we in America are yet in the infancy of this subject. But we are slowly coming to believe that there is no truer maxim than that which is recorded as a saying of one of the wisest of the rabbis, "He who would not bring up his son to a trade was as if he forced him to be a thief." Nor is that which was said by Wilhelm von Humboldt less true, "Whatever we wish to see introduced into the life of a nation must first be introduced into the life of its schools." Hence we argue that all schools should be provided with technical and industrial instruction.

VI.

Provision for the Insane.

COMPENSATION OF INSANE LABOR.

SUGGESTIONS IN REGARD TO THE BETTER ORGANIZATION OF A SYSTEM OF LABOR FOR THE CHRONIC INSANE.

BY STEPHEN SMITH, M.D.,

STATE COMMISSIONER IN LUNACY, NEW YORK.

One of the saddest aspects of the life of the insane in custody is the listlessness, languor, and indifference of able-bodied men and women. On entering a ward, attention is at once attracted to a large number of apparently healthy inmates who sit, or recline, or lazily walk about the hall, each wrapped in his own meditations or earnestly discussing with himself his fancied wrongs. They have the appearance of persons suffering from enforced idleness.

If we inquire of individual patients to learn the cause of this idleness, we shall find that these insane are divisible chiefly into two classes. One class believe that they are not insane, and that hence their commitment and detention are the result of a conspiracy among friends and acquaintances, and that the asylum authorities are parties to the crime. The other class are absorbed in their peculiar delusions, and take no interest in objects around them. The former class, by far the more numerous, assume a hostile attitude toward the officers and attendants, and obstinately refuse to become interested in any kind of employment or amusement. The latter class can only be diverted from the all-absorbing topics which engross their thoughts by great and persistent efforts.

If we closely examine these patients, we find that their bodily condition is not good. The hands are soft and moist; the skin is flabby; the muscles are weak; the pulse is soft; the tongue is large and furred; the breath is offensive; and there is about many an odor of decomposition. They generally eat excessively of the coarser foods,

and thus maintain a remarkable degree of plumpness ; but they are not examples of good physical health. They have very little vital stamina, and show little power of endurance or of resistance to disease. This habit of body is largely due to that want of equal adjustment of food and labor essential to sound health. It has been well said by good authority that, "with too much food and too little work, or with too little food and too much work, the vivifying stream from which healthy mind is generated in the convolutions of the brain will either be impure or impoverished."

The importance of occupation as a remedial agent in the treatment of the insane is undoubtedly of the first importance. The authority quoted above gives the following physiological reasons in favor of labor: "But good food cannot produce its full tranquillizing and curative effect upon the brain, unless it is properly digested and circulated. The stomach and the heart must perform their functions well before the cerebral cells can absorb their nutriment ; and, to effect this purpose, bodily exercise in the open air is, in a great number of cases, almost essential. This helps the digestion, expands the lungs, and strengthens the heart ; and thus the brain gets what it wants to provide improving capacity for mental processes during the day and mental repose during the night, tending toward health and sanity."

But labor is not only physiologically necessary for the physical health of the insane, but it is a powerful agent in restoring the equilibrium of a disturbed and disordered mind. The insane are usually disorderly. Whatever may have been their previous habits of punctuality in business, they cease to attend to the orderly routine of duties, and gradually lapse into a condition of idleness or indifference. The appointed task which labor imposes tends to restore the mind to its former methods of thought and action, and to counteract and eventually obliterate the disturbing element in the operations of the mind. It is not enough that a certain piece of work is to be done, but the fact that it has to be begun at a given hour daily, and prosecuted in an orderly manner day by day to its completion, is the real source of benefit to the insane laborer.

Dr. Brigham remarked nearly half a century ago: "Incurable cases, instead of being immured in jails and in the town and the county poor-houses, without employment, where they are continually losing mind and becoming worse, should be placed in good asylums, and have employment on farms or in shops. In this way, they would, in general, be rendered much happier ; and some would probably recover."

Dr. Gray, of the New York State Lunatic Asylum, states that he has no "doubt of the great value of labor as a curative means." Dr. Bowers, superintendent of a private English asylum, remarks:—

"Chronic insanity requires occupation of a nature suited to the physical condition of the patient, in addition to great variety of amusements. Patients not being occupied have much time to brood over their delusions, to invent and magnify grievances; and this want of purpose retards very materially the recovery of large numbers. It leads, moreover, to various destructive and pernicious practices as an outlet to the pent-up energy which, latent or active, is existent in almost every person, whether sane or insane. It causes a patient to tear his clothes and his bedding, to break windows and ornaments and furniture, to grub up soil in the airing courts, to masturbate, to be quarrelsome, to make constant efforts to escape, and even to commit suicide."

Dr. John B. Chapin, of Willard Asylum, New York, says: "The question of labor of the insane, its feasibility and value, has been demonstrated by this asylum, and particularly during the past year. . . . The results have been gratifying and of large value."

Dr. MacDonald, of the Asylum for Insane Criminals at Auburn, remarks: "Realizing the importance of occupation for the insane, both as a curative and calmative measure, . . . I have aimed during the past summer, as in former years, to provide, as far as possible, suitable employment for such of the inmates as, in my judgment, were able and could be induced to work."

Many other superintendents could be referred to, whose experience favors the occupation of the chronic insane by well-adapted forms of labor. The kinds of labor, and the amount of the task to be performed by individual patients, should always be adjusted and directed by medical supervision. As it has been stated by Dr. Gray, "it requires care to determine who shall work, and how much work each may do." Dr. Talcott, of the New York State Homœopathic Asylum, says in regard to work, "But it is a task requiring strenuous and delicate care in selection of kinds, discriminating judgment in application, and close observation of effect."

It is evident, therefore, to make labor in the highest degree useful to the chronic insane, there must be a carefully supervised system, by which the kinds of occupation adapted to each individual are daily judiciously adjusted by medical skill. Dr. Bowers remarks: "This principle involves a great deal of extra thought and trouble to the superintendent; but it is essential to the smooth working of the system, and no medical officer . . . need attempt to carry it out without being prepared for a large accession to his present duties."

The preceding remarks are suggestive of the importance of devoting more attention to the employment of the chronic insane. At present, it is too much of a hap-hazard matter, being left largely to the whims of the insane themselves. The trustees of Willard Asylum, the pioneer institution for the chronic insane of the State of New York, remark, "We do not attempt to compel labor, for we do not think it right or proper to enforce an irresponsible insane person to do what he has determined not to do." As a consequence of this policy, the average per cent. of inmates employed in 1882 was: men, 38.2; women, 37.6. It can scarcely be possible that this is the largest per cent. of persons in an asylum for the chronic insane capable of doing some kinds of labor. On the contrary, there are some county asylums which report as many as seventy-five per cent. of the chronic insane capable of work of some kind. The inference seems rather to be that the methods of securing work from the inmates are faulty. In this view, the following suggestions of measures of reform are made:—

In the first place, the kinds of employment should be more diversified. The object sought should be to furnish every variety of occupation which can possibly interest the insane. For the larger number there is no doubt that ordinary farm labor will be found best adapted. But there are always many artisans in every asylum who, if they work at all, prefer their own special trade. This attempt to systematize labor in an asylum leads directly to the formation of a community. If the labor is limited merely to farming, the variety of occupations necessary to carry it on is extremely small; but, if we engraft upon the farm labor skilled mechanical employments, we must suppose that there is a community with a great variety of interests. In fact, if the effort is made to organize labor for the insane, having as a model the diversified wants of an ordinary community, we should more nearly meet the ideal that we have in view than by any other means. Having as the substantial basis of a community of the insane a large farm devoted to mixed agriculture, we readily see that there must be the following trades in active operation; namely, carpenters, blacksmiths, tinsmiths, tailors, shoemakers, cabinet-makers, hat-makers, broom-makers, grocerymen, merchants, painters, barbers, etc. In other words, such a community demands every kind of trade found in any country village.

But the mere provision of opportunities for labor, both on a farm and at trades, does not by any means remedy the evil. The great point to be gained is the actual engagement of the insane in the va-

rious occupations provided. If the insane are tempted to labor only by their love of work, few, comparatively, will be induced to join in any occupation. On the contrary, though compulsory occupation may be better for the able-bodied than idleness, yet labor of any kind, which does not fully enlist the sympathies and mental energies, falls short of its real capacity to benefit the laborer. Compulsory labor is degrading and demoralizing. It is only when the laborer thoroughly enjoys his task that it gives him its full reward of health and happiness.

How, then, can the insane be brought to labor cheerfully? The remedy to be employed is the same with the insane as with the sane; namely, *adequate compensation*. To the often-repeated inquiry of the idle insane, "Why do you not work?" the uniform answer is, "I won't work for the State without pay." To the inquiry, "Will you work for wages?" the equally uniform answer is, "Yes." This condition of mind is perfectly rational, though it is sometimes construed to be an evidence of insanity. Indeed, if we remember that the insane generally regard their confinement in an asylum as a cruel infliction, the result of a conspiracy, that they are very unjustly taken from their homes and business, and deprived of their natural rights, it will not be difficult to understand that urging them to perform gratuitous labor is adding the grossest insult to the most painful injury.

If labor is valuable to the insane, even when secured by coaxing and urging, it will be vastly more beneficial when the laborer performs his task under the stimulus of adequate compensation. Extended inquiries among the insane of the State of New York convinces me that seventy-five per cent. of the chronic insane capable of doing work could be induced to labor, and to the fullest extent of their capacity, if they were fairly compensated; and the amount of work performed would be more than a hundred-fold what it is under the system of voluntary labor.

In this connection, and as corroborative of the above remarks, we quote the following statement by Dr. Tuke* in regard to rewards for work in the asylum for insane criminals in England. He says:—

"In one particular, indeed, a change in the direction of economy has been made; and a very reasonable change it is. It is connected with an important question which arises,—How far can the system of rewards for work be beneficially carried out? It appears that, until

*Chapters in the History of the Insane in the British Isles, by David Hack Tuke, M.D., F.B.C.P. London, 1882.

some ten years ago, the main reward for useful work was a luncheon of bread and cheese and beer in the forenoon, with another, though smaller, allowance of beer in the afternoon. Both these allowances of beer (which were additional to the dinner supply) were discontinued in 1875; and, in lieu of them, a small portion of money value of the work done was credited to the workers, with permission to spend it on any trifling luxury they might desire. It was found that the executed value of the work in the shoemaker's shop in 1876 was more than that done in 1873 (the year before this experiment was tried), by 160 per cent.; while, in the tailor's shop, the increase was 120 per cent., corresponding results being obtained in other departments."

It cannot be maintained that the insane are incapable of engaging in mechanical pursuits. Experience proves that, with proper encouragement and supervision, there is no limit to the variety of trades they may profitably pursue. The asylum on Ward's Island, New York, is a standing protest against such assertions. Here are seen, on any day of the week, busy groups of shoemakers, mat-makers, tailors, painters, printers, carpenters, etc. Nor can it be maintained that the labor of the insane is worthless or costs more than it is worth. It has been assumed in this paper that labor is a curative agent, and as such demands the largest facilities of application. But the labor of the insane has a pecuniary value, as is proved in the above quotation from Dr. Tuke. The value of the labor of 167 men and women in 1881 was estimated at \$14,175. In 1873, Dr. Chapin estimated the money value of the labor of the inmates of Willard Asylum at \$22,876. During the past year, the insane of one asylum in New York worked among the farmers in the vicinity, who allowed them sixty cents per day and their dinner. And this labor, it must be borne in mind, was voluntary, and thus lacked the stimulus and incentive of paid labor.

It is not the purpose of this paper to attempt to prove that, by means of a well-devised system of labor, an asylum for the chronic insane can be made self-supporting; and yet it is strongly suggestive of that fact, since the pecuniary value of the labor of the insane can be increased over a hundred per cent. by giving money rewards.

The conclusions suggested by the preceding facts may be stated as follows:—

1. Every asylum devoted in whole or in part to the care of the chronic insane should have an organized system of industries capable of furnishing every variety of labor, whether skilled or unskilled, adapted to the capacities of the insane. The foundation of such

industries should be ample farm lands, with a population distributed and organized as a colony, the diversified wants and interests of which are to be met by the labor of the members of the community.

2. The distribution of labor should be daily adjusted under intelligent medical supervision.

3. All labor performed by the insane should be adequately compensated by a system of debits and credits equitably adjusted. All balances in favor of the laborer should be applied to his benefit; and, as far as judicious, by his advice and direction, whether by deposit in savings-banks, or investments, or in the purchase of articles for his own use or for his family.

THE INCREASE OF INSANITY.

BY A. O. WRIGHT.

The rapid increase of insanity, as shown by the constant demand for asylum accommodation and by the census reports, is attracting public attention to an unusual degree for a subject of this nature. The writer, while travelling in Wisconsin to inspect institutions, is frequently spoken to on this subject by citizens whose attention has been attracted to it by the number of new cases in their own counties, or by the new buildings for the insane in process of erection. The question is often asked him, partly in jest and partly in earnest, whether, if this increase of insanity keeps on, the insane will not soon outnumber the sane, and turn the tables upon us by putting the sane in asylums. Such questions show that the increase of insanity is not a technical subject for experts only, but one which interests as well as concerns the general public.

The census reports show a startling increase in the number of the insane. Much of this is only an apparent increase, caused by the far greater accuracy of this part of the census reports for 1880, under the skilled hands of Fred. H. Wines, the last President of this Conference. When we read that the census of 1870 showed 37,432 insane in the United States and the census of 1880 showed 91,959, we must not suppose that there had been an actual increase of 54,527 insane; but these increased figures chiefly show a more accurate census of the defective classes under skilled management.

We must not forget, also, that during this decade the United States was rapidly increasing in population, which would naturally carry with

it a corresponding increase in the number of the insane, even if no other causes were at work. This, however, is not a real increase of insanity, but simply an increase that keeps pace with the growth of population.

A cause of apparent increase of the number of insane is in the wider definitions now given insanity. Many cases of second childhood, of nervous debility, of eccentricity, of alcoholism, of moral obliquity, of epilepsy, and of idiocy, are now counted as insanity, that would not have been so regarded a few years ago. The tendency now is to call all abnormal mental and moral action insanity. Signs of reaction, it is true, can be seen in our courts of justice, where the plea of insanity as a defence against criminal prosecution does not find the favor that it once did. This tendency to call all abnormal minds insane has, of course, swelled the numbers counted as insane, without causing an actual increase. When the city of Philadelphia had its borders enlarged so as to take in most of the outlying suburbs, there was a great apparent gain of population. But the people had not actually been moving into the city: it was the city which was moved out to them. So it is with the increase of insanity caused by wider definitions. This accounts for a very considerable portion of the apparent increase. Nor is this merely a question of statistics. When an inconvenient old grandfather or a troublesome wife is committed to an insane asylum, there is something more involved than the addition of one more to the mouths to be fed by the State. There is work for lunacy commissions here, to send these people back, as a lesson in humanity as well as a relief to the State.

A very large apparent increase of insanity comes from the fact that, as proper institutions are provided for them, the insane who have been hid away in private families, often unknown to the neighbors,—and, in many cases, very badly, because ignorantly, cared for,—are brought out and placed in institutions where they are known and counted. This class of insane in private families have now been generally counted by the census of 1880, as they were not to any great extent in former censuses. One work of a lunacy commission is to see whether these insane in private families need institution treatment and to bring them to it, if necessary. Many of them are well enough off in their homes; but some of the worst cases of abuse of the insane are to be found in this very class to-day, and in States provided with the best institutions for the insane.

A real cause of a very large increase of insanity is the accumulation of the insane, as their lives are lengthened. The State institutions

for this class, most of which have been organized within a generation, have prolonged the lives of the insane. They have not realized the glowing anticipations of their founders in the number of cures, but they have so far remedied the condition of the inmates as much to prolong their lives. This partial success, resulting in neither killing nor curing the majority of the insane, is just the condition needed to cause their accumulation. Suppose that all other causes were at a standstill, and that their lives were suddenly doubled by better care. There would then be an accumulation of insane for a generation, till their numbers were doubled, when the increase would stop and the numbers remain at the increased rate. The excess of new cases over recoveries would be balanced by the deaths, as before: only the deaths would occur at a more advanced age, and the total numbers at any given time would be doubled. As most of our States have begun the erection of institutions within this generation, and as few of them have been able to provide for all of their insane who needed institution care, this accumulation has not yet reached its height. There must be a considerable increase of insane from the continuance of this cause for years to come.

A considerable number of insane have been sent to this country from Europe. These can be found in the West as in the East, where they have drifted into asylums and poorhouses. But, as we should get a larger number of insane with our foreign immigrants, if they brought their fair proportion of insane with them from their own countries,—a proportion which is likely to be restored in the next generation from natural causes,—the increase from this source is only temporary.

A very interesting field of inquiry is opened by the results of the census as to the effect of race upon insanity. The negroes have a much smaller proportion of insane than the whites, and the foreign whites a greater proportion than native whites. In the case of the negroes, it would seem to be a matter of race; and one of the few things in which the colored race is superior to the white race. In the case of the foreign whites, it may be a matter of race or it may be one of social condition and habits of living. It certainly is noteworthy that, while the foreign immigrants generally are of sound mind and body when they come here, many of them find their way into asylums before they die.*

*My attention has been called by Mr. Wines to the fact that the great apparent excess of insanity among the foreign white population is more apparent than real. The foreign whites are mostly adults, their children being mostly counted as native whites. But insanity is a disease of mature life. Any calculation, like that of a recent able address on this subject before the American

A question frequently raised is as to the effects of city life in producing insanity. If city life produces more insanity than country life, that would account for some of the increase of insanity; since our cities are growing disproportionately to the country. But the fact is that no considerable difference can be found in the rate of insanity between city and country. In England, for a long series of years there was slightly less insanity in London than in the agricultural counties.

It is often claimed that insanity is a disease of civilization, and that it is increasing because civilization is increasing. This I think to be a mistake. If we could get at the truth, I think it would be found that there was about as much insanity among people of the Aryan race in former generations as now, only that it was concealed from public notice or it was not called by that name or it was not allowed to accumulate as it does now under our more humane treatment. We know about how many insane we have now in Europe and America, but we can only guess at how many there were two or three centuries ago. An able English writer has followed the deductive method with this subject, in default of facts enough for any reliable induction. He shows that the causes which produce insanity to-day have existed with nearly equal force certainly since the time of the Roman Empire. He therefore claims that, as the causes existed with equal intensity, there must have been about as large a proportion of insanity in ancient and mediæval as in modern times.

A very powerful cause for the increase of insanity in this country was, so far as I know, first pointed out by the writer in 1881, before the census of 1880 had been tabulated, in the Annual Report of the Wisconsin State Board of Charities and Reform, and was stated in debate at the National Conference of Charities and Correction at Madison in 1882. Having made a census of the insane under public care in Wisconsin, the writer, on reducing the number by counties to the ratio to the population of the several counties, was astonished to find here a general law: that the older settled counties had the largest ratio of insane to the population, and that the ratio steadily decreased and reached the smallest ratio in the pioneer counties on the north. This seemed to show that a new country has a smaller proportion of insanity than an old country.

When the Compendium of the Census of 1880 was published, the

Public Health Association, founded on the census tables, without allowing for this fact, is fallacious. But, after making all due allowance for this fallacy in figures, there still remains a real excess of insanity among the foreign population.

writer, from the numbers given there, immediately calculated the ratios to the population, and arranged the States and territories geographically instead of alphabetically.* The result was that the largest proportion of insanity was found to be in the New England States, next in the Middle States, next in the Interior States, and next in the Southern States. The exceptions were the Pacific slope and the District of Columbia. The Pacific slope has special causes of insanity, and the District of Columbia counts with its insane all insane United States soldiers and sailors from any part of the country. The probabilities are that the census of the insane in Nevada and Wyoming is imperfect. For the Southern States, the number of negroes will partly account for their small ratios of insanity. But in the Northern States there is a tolerably regular decrease in the ratio of insanity as you go west. The same is the case with the Southern States: there is less insanity the farther west you go. Thus, allowing for exceptional cases, the proportion of insanity decreases as you go toward the newer settled States, from about one in every 350 of the population in Massachusetts to about one in 1,900 in Colorado.

The reason of this I think to be that new settlements are made by a selected population, mostly young and middle-aged people of sound minds and bodies. The insane are left behind, as are also those people of bad organization from whose numbers the most of the insane will come. The new countries, therefore, have a small proportion of insanity at the start, and furnish a small proportion of insanity in the first generation.

The only exception to this is in the case of the Pacific slope, and a few other localities, where masses of homeless men, with few women and children, have gone in search of work or of wealth; where the vices of drunkenness and licentiousness, with the irregularities and the hardships of life in mining or lumbering camps, and the excessive fluctuations of fortune, have caused an excess of insanity. In these cases, it is, however, to be remembered that this is a disease of mature life; and, if we add the proper proportion of children who would be found in an ordinary community, and who rarely have insanity, we should at once halve the ratio of insanity in such communities.

But, in ordinary settlements, where the settlers found homes, and live under the ordinary conditions of life, the rate of insanity in the first generation is small, because they are, as the insurance men would say, "selected lives." In the second generation, all the complex and varied causes which produce insanity have been at work; and the

*See table on page 233.

second generation has a much greater ratio of insanity than the first, and so on for several generations, when the balance is restored, and the regular rate of insanity is reached.

Assuming this theory to be true, it accounts for the fact that the rate of insanity diminishes as we go westward from the Atlantic coast. It accounts for the fact that the rate in this country is less than in Europe; and it accounts for the fact that the rate of insanity is now rising so rapidly in the interior States, which are now in the second and third generation after their settlement.

This theory also leads to the conclusion that this rapid increase of insanity will not continue long, but will become slower and slower till the rate of insanity at last reaches the rate of European countries, or about one to every three or four hundred of the population.

The only escape from this increase would be the discovery and application of methods of cure or of prevention of insanity, neither of which have we yet reached.

NOTE.—The following is the table, to which reference has been made, arranged geographically instead of alphabetically:—

NEW ENGLAND STATES.

Maine,	one insane person to every	421
New Hampshire,	" " "	329
Vermont,	" " "	327
Massachusetts,	" " "	348
Rhode Island,	" " "	404
Connecticut,	" " "	361
Total population of New England, 4,010,629.		
Average of insanity, 1 to every 359.		

MIDDLE STATES.

New York,	one insane person to every	362
New Jersey,	" " "	470
Pennsylvania,	" " "	516
Total population, 10,496,878.		
Average of insanity, 1 to every 424.		

INTERIOR STATES.

Ohio,	one insane person to every	439
Indiana,	" " "	558
Illinois,	" " "	600
Michigan,	" " "	586
Wisconsin,	" " "	521
Total population, 13,091,477.		
Average of insanity, 1 to every 610.		

NORTH-WESTERN STATES.

Iowa,	one insane person to every	639
Minnesota,	" " " "	681
Kansas,	" " " "	996
Nebraska,	" " " "	1,005

Total population, 3,853,886.

Average of insanity, 1 to every 750.

SOUTH MIDDLE STATES.

Delaware,	one insane person to every	740
Maryland,	" " " "	504
Virginia,	" " " "	627
North Carolina,	" " " "	690

Total population, 3,993,866.

Average of insanity, 1 to every 610.

SOUTH INTERIOR STATES.

West Virginia,	one insane person to every	630
Kentucky,	" " " "	592
Tennessee,	" " " "	642
Missouri,	" " " "	655

Total population, 5,977,886.

Average of insanity, 1 to every 629.

EXTREME SOUTHERN STATES.

South Carolina,	one insane person to every	895
Georgia,	" " " "	908
Florida,	" " " "	1,065
Alabama,	" " " "	830
Mississippi,	" " " "	987
Louisiana,	" " " "	938
Arkansas,	" " " "	1,017
Texas,	" " " "	1,018

Total population, 8,499,572.

Average of insanity, 1 to every 935.

PACIFIC SLOPE.

California,	one insane person to every	345
Oregon,	" " " "	462
Washington,	" " " "	556
Nevada,	" " " "	2,008

Total population, 1,176,844.

Average of insanity, 1 to every 385.

WESTERN STATES AND TERRITORIES.

Dakota,	one insane person to every	1,878
Montana,	" " " "	664
Idaho,	" " " "	2,038
Wyoming,	" " " "	5,197

Colorado,	one insane person to every	1,963
New Mexico,	" " " "	781
Utah,	" " " "	953
Arizona,	" " " "	1,926

Total population, 725,994.

Average of insanity, 1 to every 1,263.

District of Columbia,	one insane person to every	189
Indian Territory and Alaska not reported.		

From the above, it will be seen that the ratio of insanity decreases as we go west or south of New England.

Compare the different sections of the Northern States :—

New England,	one insane person to every	359
Middle States,	" " " "	424
Interior States,	" " " "	610
North-western States,	" " " "	750

Then take those Southern States where the whites preponderate :—

East of the Alleghanies,	one insane person to every	610
West of the Alleghanies,	" " " "	629

Then take those Southern States where the blacks preponderate, from South Carolina, with 1 insane person to 895, to Texas, with 1 insane person to 1,018.

But, in the Southern States, the true ratios are obscured by the large number of negroes and their smaller proportion of insanity. Taking the white population only, and the white insane only, we have the following tables :—

SOUTHERN STATES (upper half).

Delaware,	one insane person to every	801
Maryland,	" " " "	453
Virginia,	" " " "	512
North Carolina,	" " " "	544
West Virginia,	" " " "	627
Kentucky,	" " " "	564
Tennessee,	" " " "	558
Missouri,	" " " "	639

SOUTHERN STATES (lower half).

South Carolina,	one insane person to every	601
Georgia,	" " " "	635
Florida,	" " " "	848
Alabama,	" " " "	597

entity allied to matter as the physical substratum of its functional display, is not important.

The essential fact to a correct comprehension of insanity has been demonstrated, and is beyond disproof; namely, that, whatever conception we may hold as to the essential nature of mind, it is allied in all its manifestations to organism, and cannot in life be dissevered from it. From Cœlius Aurelianus and Celsus to Hippocrates, Broussais, Rush, and all the later reputable writers of our own time, mind deranged has been and is allied to organism disordered.

The question now only remains unsettled as to how and in what manner is disordered organism associated with mind deranged?

It is conceded that not the brain alone is at fault. But since Democritus made the historical dissection in the garden at Abdera, to find out if the seat of melancholia or atrabilis was in the liver, to the present, organic causative conditions of insanity have been found in the system outside of the brain, and especially in the sympathetic nervous system as well as directly in the brain.

The older idea of the condition of insanity, after the idea of the intervention of the gods as a causative factor was abandoned, made delusion, associated with intellectual misconception, due to subjective morbid cerebral change, the basis of insanity.

The error of that definition consisted mainly in the restrictions as to the nature of the delusive impressions; the delusion being confined to tangible but perverted *concepts*, and usually originating in illusion or hallucination, associated with the *special senses*; whereas, *all insanity consists of an illusory or hallucinatory organic impression, or concept, or perverted impulse, due to some morbid condition of the organism, deluding and misleading in its character, and wrongly influencing and affecting the conduct of the individual, either in thought or action, or both.*

Where this defect is not inherent and does not display itself before or during the period of the organic evolution of the individual into maturity of mind, it effects a change in his character by which he is *not only out of harmony with his environment, but he is out of harmony with his natural self. But the standard of comparison in all cases of insanity cannot be the person's natural self, because, in some instances, insanity is natural to the individual, because it is hereditary, and evolved with the natural evolution of his organism.*

The real essence of insanity is, therefore, a subjective morbid change in an organism (due either to ante-natal or post-natal conditions, but usually to both), in the nature of deranged organic or special sensation or impulse, implicating the mind. *Organic feelings*

mislead the mind, and may prove as delusive as special-sense subjective perversions, misleading the mind, so that it acts in a manner neither natural to the individual nor to the normal family type of that individual. The standard of comparison in insanity cannot always be self, but the normal self-type before the morbid ancestral departure.

The so-called delusional insanities, because they reveal morbid mental action associated with subjective mistaken concepts or perceptions, or pure intellectual delusions founded on illusion or hallucination of the special senses, are not the only forms of delusional insanity which should be recognized in psychiatry. Many other subjective sensations, which are at the foundation of the morbid egoism and impulses of insanity, are equally delusive, such as the exaggerated muscular sense or feeling of strength, or, *vice versa*, hyperæsthetic or anæsthetic and motor subjective illusory conditions, and those undefined perversions of feeling displayed in melancholia and megalomania and suicidal and homicidal impulses, as well as the klepto, pyromanical, nymphomaniacal, and yet unnamed morbidly erratic feelings which mislead the judgment and conduct of the insane. The organic feelings are as delusive as the perverted special-sense perceptions and as justly entitled to recognition, when perverted and delusive in their nature and influence on mind.

The organic conditions of the emotional forms of insanity, as of religious exaltation and insane enthusiasm and the condition of the nervous system, in fact, in all the psycho-sensory forms of mental derangement, under which should be included the moral insanity of Prichard, is, in a sense, delusional to the individual, and so modifies mental conduct, though not delusional in the hitherto recognized sense.

The basis of insanity, therefore, is a delusive feeling or impulse, probably always an underlying perverted feeling, special or general, dependent upon morbid organic conditions, and impressing itself on the conduct or character of the person affected by it.

Definitions of insanity, describing a departure from natural habits of thought, feeling, or conduct, are correct descriptions of the non-hereditary and most common forms of insanity; but the essential condition is *the changing and misleading subjective impressions of the insane person, coupled with the resultant change of conduct or of reasoning, or both*.

Delusion, therefore, notwithstanding the antiquity of the criterion, is not so bad a test of insanity, after all, if we no longer unwarrantably restrict its meaning to perverted intellectual concepts, and the

old-time special-sense delusions restricted to the five senses, but extend its meaning to *any subjective morbid condition of the nervous system which misleads the mind or conduct*. This latter phrase defines the writer's conception of a delusion; and, as such, delusive, subjective, morbid states of the organism are at the foundation of all insanity. It is the abnormal condition of the organism which deranges the normal display of psychical function, and causes the departure from what we recognize in the individual or in the healthy members of his family, or in mankind in general, as natural healthy mentality. The victim of insanity is misled and perverted in the exercise of his psychic powers by conditions of the system induced by disease, either primarily affecting the intellectual faculties and disturbing the normal self-conscious relation to surroundings,—usually first affecting the organic feelings, and secondarily influencing the reasoning powers,—so that, but for this degree of disease, the latter might act correctly; and the reason becomes, under the dominion of the dominant morbid feeling, either a perverted or an abeyant servitor. Sometimes, however, the reason seems first affected, and delusive concepts appear to precede the morbid change of feeling or action.

Alienism has many symptomatic data, because of the many varieties of insanity and the many-sided observations of the disease; but all of the data of mental alienation may be formulated in one proposition,—namely, *morbid, delusive conception or perception of subjective origin, causing change of mental character as compared with former self or normal ancestral type*, through organic conditions originating in disease within the system, external motives playing but a secondary part when they influence at all the mental conduct. Change of character is the ultimate symptomatic expression of insanity; change of mental conduct, the immediate. And repetitions of conduct make character.

Change of function is the symptomatic expression of *all* disease, to which *mental* disease offers no exception; and, obeying the laws of hereditary transmission, it may, in its hereditary forms, exhibit only an abnormal aptitude, requiring an additional excitant factor to develop it into active morbid expression, or the inborn defect may be so great as to require only the natural organic evolution of growth to reveal it, or, still greater, it may require not even this to unfold it, but may display itself in states of organic retrogression and nerve instability, so extreme as to be perceptible at the earliest period when the display of mind is perceivable at all,—idiocy, congenital imbecility, and infantile insanity.

These latter states are the extreme products of pre-existing insanity, the death stages of a previous mental derangement in which psychical function has been disordered by disease. Here, however, function is not perverted, but often ceases, because of the cessation of the psychical cell life of the *cerebral substratum* of mentality. Mental disease has pre-existed and may be said to still persist, but only in the sense that necrosis following an inflammatory process may be called disease.

THE CARE OF THE INSANE.

We live in an age when every uttered sentiment of charity toward the insane is applauded to its remotest echo; an age in which the chains and bolts and bars and dismal cells and flagellations and manifold tortures of the less humane and less enlightened past are justly abhorrent; an age which measures its magnificent philanthropy by munificent millions bestowed without stint upon monumental mansions for the indwelling of the most pitiable and afflicted of the children of men, safe from the pitiless storms of adverse environment without, so harshly violent to the morbidly sensitive and unstable mind; an age in which he who strikes a needless shackle from human form or heart, or removes a cause of human torture, psychical or physical, is regarded as a greater moral hero than he who, by storm or strategy of war, taketh a resisting fortress; an age when the Chiarugis and Pinels, the Yorks and Tukes of not remotely past history, and the Florence Nightingales and Dorothea Dixes of our own time, are enshrined in the heart of a philanthropic world with greater than monumental memory.

Noble, Christlike sentiment of human charity! Let it be cherished and fostered still toward the least of the children of affliction and misfortune, as man in his immortal aspirations moves nearer and nearer to the loving, charitable heart of God, imaging in his work the example of the divinely incarnate Master. But let us always couple this exalted sentimentality with the stern logic of fact, and never misdirect or misapply it in any of our charitable work. Imperfect knowledge perverts the noblest sentiment: widened and perfected knowledge strengthens its power. A truly philanthropic sentiment is most potent for good in the power of knowledge, and may be made most powerful for evil through misconception or inadequate comprehension of facts. As we grow in aspiration after the highest welfare of the insane, let us widen our knowledge of the real nature of insanity and the actual necessities for its amelioration, prevention, and

cure. It is a long time since Grotius wrote "the study of the human is the noblest branch of medicine"; and we realize to-day that it is the noblest study of man, regardless of his avocation. Ay: it is the imperative study of our generation and of those who are to follow us, if we would continue, as we wish to be, the conservators of the good and great, and promoters of advancing capability for great and good deeds in our humanity.

One known and acknowledged insane person to every five hundred sane persons, and besides those an unreckoned number of unstably endowed and too mildly mannered lunatics to require restraint, but none the less dangerous to the perpetuation of the mental stability of the race, is an appalling picture of fact for the philanthropic conservators of the race to contemplate.

The insane temperament and its pathological twin brother, the neuropathic diathesis, roam at large with no restraint from without, or that self-restraint which, bred of adequate self-knowledge, might come from within, and contaminate with neurotic and mental instability the innocent unborn, furnishing histogenic factors which the future formulates in minds dethroned to become helpless wards of the State or the family. The insane temperament is more enduringly fatal to the welfare of humanity than the deadly *comma bacillus* which is supposed to convey the scourge of Asia to our shores. The latter comes at stated periods, and disappears after a season or two of devastation, in which the least fit of our population to live, by reason of feeble organic resisting power, are destroyed; while resisting tolerance is established in the remainder. But this scourge is with us always, transmitting weakness unto coming generations.

It is the insanity in chronic form which escapes asylum care and custody, except in its exacerbations. It is the insanity of organism which gives so much of the erratic and unstable to society in its manifestations of mind and morals. It is the form of unstable mental organism which, like an unstrung instrument, jangles harshly and out of tune when touched in a manner to elicit, in more stable organisms, harmonious sounds. It is the form of mental organism out of which by slight exciting causes, largely imaginary, the Guiteaus and Joan d'Arcs of history are made, the Howisons and Passanantes and Freemans, and names innumerable, whose deeds of blood have stained the pages of history, and whose doings in our day contribute so largely to the awful calendar of crime which blackens and spreads with gore the pages of our daily press.

We may cherish the sentiment that it were base cowardice to lay

hand upon the lunatic except in kindness, and yet restrain him from himself and the community from him. We may couple his restraint with the largest liberty compatible with his welfare and ours. We may not always abolish the bolts and bars—indeed, we cannot—either to his absolute personal liberty in asylum or to his entire moral freedom without those walls, yet we may keep them largely out of sight. Let him be manacled when he must, and only when he must, and then only with silken cords, bound by affectionate hands, and not by chains. We may not open all the doors,—indeed, we cannot; but, thanks to the humanitarian spirit of the age in which we live, we can and do open many of them, and so shut them, when we must shut them for his welfare and ours, that he may not feel that hope is gone or humanity barred out with the closing of the door.

We may not always swing the door of the asylum as facily outward as inward, the nature of his malady will not admit of this; but we should do it when we can, and never, when we must close it, should we do it harshly. And, while we must narrow his liberty among ourselves, we should enlarge it, to the fullest extent permissible, in the community to which his affliction assigns him. Liberty need not necessarily be denied him; and, to the glory of our age, it is not in the majority of American asylums. The free sunlight and the fresh air belong as much to him in his changed mental condition as to you or to me, and more, because his malady needs their invigorating power. The man who in this enlightened age would chain an insane man in a dungeon because he is diseased, troublesome, or dangerous, would be unworthy the name of human. Effective restraint may be employed without the use of either iron manacles or dismal light-and-air-secluding dungeons. The insane man is one of our comrades who has fallen mentally maimed in the battle of life. It may be our turn next to follow him to the rear; but because we must carry him from the battle-field, where he may have fought even more valiantly than ourselves, we need not forget or neglect him. The duty is all the more imperative that we care for him, and in such a manner that he may, if possible, be restored. Simple sequestration of the insane man is an outrage upon him and on humanity. "Whatsoever ye would that men should do unto you, do ye even so to them," is the divine precept, which, if we follow as we ought, will lead us to search for our fallen comrades in the almshouses and penal institutions and reformatories—and sometimes in out-houses and cellars of private houses, to our shame be it said—where errors of

judgment, or cruelty, have placed them, and to transfer them to places of larger liberty and to hopes of happiness and recovery.

The chronic insane are entitled to our care, and to all the comforts they earned while battling with us for their common welfare and ours. Almshouses and neglected out-houses are not proper places for them. If we cannot cure them, they are entitled to be so cared for that they shall not do those things to their own harm or the harm of the race which they would not do, if they were in their best mental estate. Society must be protected from the spread of inherited insanity. Hence, such kindly surveillance, coupled with the largest possible liberty, should be exercised over them as will save posterity from the entailment of a heritage more fatal than cancer or consumption. It is plain therefore that almshouses and poor-farms are not proper places for these unfortunates.

The insane man is a changed man, and his life is more or less delusional. In view of this fact, we should always endeavor so to surround him that his environment may not augment the morbid change in him and intensify his perverted character. Realizing that mind in insanity is perverted rather than lost, we should deport ourselves toward the victims of this disease as in no way to augment the malady, but always, if possible, so as to ameliorate or remove it. Realizing that the insane man, when well, may have walked the earth a king, and in this free country of ours have been an honored sovereign, weighted with the welfare of his people, contributing of his substance toward our charities, we should provide for his comfort, when this affliction comes upon him, with unstinting hand. We should give him a home worthy of our own sovereign selves and such as would suit us, were we providing for ourselves if we knew that this affliction were approaching us. His home should be as unirritating and restful to him as possible. It should always be unprisonlike, and only be a prison when the violent phases of his malady imperatively demand restraint. An hour of maniacal excitement does not justify a month of chains. Mechanical restraint is a remedy of easy resort, but the fettered man frets away strength essential to his recovery. Outside of asylums, direct restraint is often a stern necessity. It is sometimes so in them; but, in many of them and outside of all of them, it may be greatly diminished, and asylums may be so constructed as to make the reduction of direct restraint practicable to the smallest minimum. Direct mechanical restraint for the insane, save to avert an act of violence not otherwise preventable, is never justifiable. The hand should never be manacled, if the head can be

so influenced as to stay it; and we should try to stay the hand through steadying the head.

Every place for these unfortunates should provide for them ample room and congenial employment, whether profitable to the State or not; and the labor should be induced, seldom enforced, and always timed and suited to their malady. A variety of diverting occupations tends to divert from delusioned introspection. Most institutions attempt to give their patients some occupation, but State policy should be liberal in this direction.

Deductions are obvious. Every insane community of mixed recent and long-standing cases, or of chronic cases exclusively, should be a home, and not a mere place of detention. It should be as unprison-like and attractive as any residence for the non-criminal. It should have for any considerable number of insane persons at least a section [six hundred and forty acres] of ground. It should be in the country of course, but accessible to the supplies of a large city. There should be a central main building, as architecturally beautiful and substantial as the State may choose to make it, provided with places of security for such as require them in times of excitement. There should be a chapel, an amusement hall, and a hospital, within reach of the feeble and decrepit without risk to health in bad weather. Out-houses should be built (with rooms attached and set apart for the residence of trustworthy patients), for farmer, gardener, dairyman, herdsman, shepherd, and baker, painter, engineer, etc., that those who desire to be employed with them and who are physically able and to be trusted may have opportunity for work. Cottages should be scattered about the grounds for the use and benefit of such as may not enjoy an aggregate life, and which could be used for isolation in case of epidemic visitation. Recreations, games, drives, and walks should be liberally provided. Perfect but not direct and offensive surveillance should be exercised over all the patients.

In short, the hospital home for the chronic insane, or where acute and chronic insane are domiciled together, should be a colonial home, with the living arrangements as nearly those which would be most congenial to a large body of sane people and as the condition of the insane changed by disease will allow. The head of such a community should be medical, and not that medical mediocrity that covets and accepts political preferment without medical qualifications.

The largest personal liberty to the chronic insane may be best

secured by separate provision for the two sexes in widely separated establishments.

It is plain that the whole duty of man is not discharged toward his fallen insane brother when he has accomplished his sequestration from society at large or fed and housed him well. The study of the needs of the insane and of the duty of the State in regard to them is as important and imperative a study as any subject of political economy.

VII.

Provision for Idiots.

PROVISION FOR IDIOTIC AND FEEBLE-MINDED CHILDREN.

BY ISAAC N. KERLIN, M.D.,

ELWYN, PA.

By request of the honorable President of this Conference and in response to letters received from several of its members, your Standing Committee on Provision for Idiotic and Feeble-minded Children becomes active; and, on its behalf, we present two papers, — this, and one to follow by Hon. H. M. Greene, of Kansas, — constituting the first formal report made to this body by your Committee.

It is not strange that the claims of idiotic and feeble-minded children should have waited a hearing until your twelfth conference; for this clientage is almost a voiceless one, hidden away often from its nearest neighborhood, shunned of companionship, and until the last census but half reported.

Society moves with most alacrity — whether to repress, to save, or to aid — toward those forms of misery or those conditions of accident to which its active members are most liable. Hence, hospitals for the physically maimed, hospitals for the sick, pest-houses for the plague-ridden, and asylums for the poor and aged are the first of a series of human activities, reaching a higher evolution of unselfishness when the idiotic-born share their measure from the storehouse of human sympathy.

Do not understand me to say that this Conference has been entirely oblivious to the large class of unfortunates whom we would faithfully present to you to-day. On the contrary, the lamented Hervey B. Wilbur, the American pioneer in State provision for the idiotic and feeble-minded, stood here for years, their life-long friend; while there are found in your published records short but earnest and practical calls to broader thought and better labor for them.

NUMBERS AND DISTRIBUTION OF THE IDIOTIC POPULATION.

The total idiotic population of the United States, reported in the census of 1880, amounts to 76,895, which is only 5,102 less than the total insane, and nearly equals the total of the blind and deaf mutes.

“During the last decade, the increase of population has been

30 per cent.; but the *apparent* increase in the defective or afflicted classes has been a little more than 155 per cent."—Page 1659, Compendium of the Tenth Census of the United States, 1880.

The ratio in returns of idiocy for 1880 shows an increase of 209 per cent. over the returns of 1870.

It is not claimed by any one that these returns do more than establish an approximation to the truth. With increased care in the taking of the census, and clearer apprehension on the part of the public of what are diseased and defective conditions, the tables will more and more approach accuracy. Those of 1880 are an immeasurable gain on the tables of 1870, but are still, in the records of idiocy, insufficient by 20 or 30 per centum. The term "idiot" is so repugnant that it is only the most avowed subjects that will be so returned by its family. Of 295 applications for admission to our institution received during 1880, 178 do not appear in the census; an omission of 60 per cent. Hence, it is idle to attempt any conclusion as to the actual increase in the ratio of new cases of this class. No one can read the sources of error as presented by Mr. Wines without being fully convinced of the great labor performed by his bureau, its conscientiousness and thoroughness.

Of this great army of 76,895 idiots, there were in institutions for the feeble-minded only 2,429, or a little over 3 per cent.

Supplementing the valuable returns of the census on idiocy in Pennsylvania with what we gather from our correspondence, it is safe to say that there are about 3,500 idiotic and feeble-minded children, between five and eighteen years of age, who are recognized to be such in their families and communities. I think this gauge of one to every twelve hundred will apply, if laid to the population of the several older States of our Union.

A careful examination into the social status of idiotic and feeble-minded children, made in 1871, indicates the following as about the distribution of these 3,500 feeble-minded children in our own Commonwealth: 717 are in families of ample ability to furnish support, either luxuriously in their own homes or in private institutions; 604 are in families of moderate circumstances,—they could not pay more than half rates as are now charged in institutions; 1,619 are in poor families, who are quite unable to pay for support away from home, yet absolutely unwilling to relieve themselves of a painful burden by casting their children on the county; 560 are in homes of the most degraded character or at public expense in almshouses.

Or, putting these estimates in percentages, 20½ per cent. need

never become a burden to the State; 17 per cent. more might be classed in the same favorable category; while 46½ per cent. are being maintained at the most expensive rates in the homes of their suffering families,—families deserving of a prudent, State philanthropy, which, meeting the mechanic and the laborer half way, and without absolutely pauperizing as the almshouse does, which he painfully refuses, would take the heavy end of the burden, lifting to a higher and better grade the imbecile himself, emancipating groups of brighter children from the tyranny of rule prescribed in almost any home where a blighted one dwells, and releasing exhausted mothers for the untrammelled care of their households.

Who can estimate the waste of energy, money, and heart in this extravagant home care of feeble-minded and idiotic children? When told, no history of the "annals of the poor" is more searching and pathetic, and no defence of the doctrine of State aid to relieve the calamities of her citizens more impassioned and irresistible.

DEGREES AND GRADES OF IDIOCY.

Any comprehensive survey of the defective class under consideration must take in the infinite variety of conditions embraced under the generic term, "idiotcy." The popular and prejudiced sentiment, springing from an inadequate knowledge of the subject or originating in an accidental and imperfect acquaintance with one of its lower and more unpromising forms, is absolutely wrong, and doing unpardonable injustice to very many innocent and helpful creatures, whose blight should not be made more sickly by mean aversion and selfish avoidance.

You must permit me a few minutes of description of these chief varieties or grades of idiotcy, before proceeding to their practical consideration.

It has been found convenient to group them under the following syllabus:—

- | | | |
|---------|---|---------------------------------|
| Groups. | { | 1. Idiotcy: (a) Apathetic. |
| | | (b) Excitable. |
| | | 2. Idio-imbeciles. |
| | | (a) Lower grade. |
| | | 3. Imbeciles: (b) Middle grade. |
| | | (c) High grade. |
| | | 4. Juvenile Insanity. |

To aid description, imagine that you walk through a considerable range of separated buildings, allowing me to select the types of the seven or eight grades we shall encounter in as many localities.

Here, in a large, airy, sunny room, lying on couches or advanced to rocking-chairs, is the saddest and lowest group. You are likely to stop before its type, a helpless gelatinoid creature, ten years of age, so limp and structureless that, in the language of the nurse, "he doubles in three like a clothes-horse, when lifted from his bed." The only noise that interests him is that of a bell. The only object he ever seems to look at is his hand. He cries when he is hungry. He enjoys being held and rocked, and shows actual delight when bathed. With his great, luminous, soft, jet eyes, he reminds one of a seal. Perhaps his intelligence is rather below that of a trained seal. It is certainly not that of a babe four weeks old. He is a profound idiot, with epileptic complication. Near by is another of the same age,—mute, dwarfed, and helpless. She actuates nothing. Her only expression of common wants is a low moan or cry; but she rewards the faithful nurse by a smile, recognizing the epithet "baby," which has been applied to her. She sleeps well, and enjoys her bath.

Excitable idiots are not so common as the apathetic. They usually die early from exhaustion or, less happily, sink into apathetic forms; but there is a group in every large asylum of this class, taxing the ingenuity of their present care-takers, after wasting the best life of their families.

The temptation for their extinction rises to the lips of the careless, forgetful how far such practice would be from all moral or judicial right, how revolting to every religious sentiment and contradictory to every logical principle.

So we have them with us, although so little of us. Annie F., the saddest type, aged eight years, mute, wild, and vicious, biting any one whom she can reach, with a nervousness in the act that suggests its irresponsibility; darting to an open window to throw herself headlong below, her glittering eyes, tensely drawn lips, and sudden pallors indicating the pain and commotion of her poor and worried brain. How fittingly and terribly does this disturbed life project itself from its ante-natal unrest,—an unwilling and unhappy conception, for the destruction of which the mother's stormiest passions had unceasingly but unavailingly contended! And there are a few others as sad, exciting wonder why they continue to live, and greater wonder how the home and the neighborhood tolerated for years their cries, discordant noises, and uncouthness.

Advanced beyond these apathetic and excitable idiots, we find an intermediate group, the idio-imbeciles. Many have the facial ap-

pearance, the deformed heads, the dwarfishness of body, the narrow buccal arches, the imperfect teeth of very imperfect creatures; but there is dawning intelligence. Taken from their isolation, they feebly grasp, through their shyness and sensitiveness, for the better things about them. Expecting them to do little or nothing, the trainer is daily sustained by successes, and goes on hopefully introducing most of them to a higher grade,—that of the lowest forms of imbecility; and here we discover the strongest individuality, so that it is quite impossible to select a type. T. T., age twelve, will illustrate as well as any. He is a microcephalic paralytic imbecile of low grade: articulation quite imperfect; sense of sight and hearing good; hand well formed; imitation above the grade in which he is placed; cruel in his disposition; showing discrimination, analysis, and candor, when he says he “likes to wear heavy boots,—good to kick boys with.” He is the better of two similarly mal-formed and imbecile brothers now living. In this lowest plane of imbecility will be found many mutes who are yet possessed of perfect hearing, ready appreciation of language, and often dexterous finger and hand capacity. Under special training in articulation and the inspiring effect of concert recitation and song, they come to the partial possession of speech. They rarely become perfect in speech. As their capacity is gradually developed, they are carried forward into the higher ranks, to become our most interesting children. The idiocy or imbecility displayed by them is, as often as not, the effect of their isolation. The brighter children of the family outgrow them. They betake themselves to solitary lives and belittling occupations, until the range of their intelligence becomes very limited. They are the Kaspar Hausers of our community.

Advancing into another apartment, the fifth or sixth of the series through which you must imagine yourselves to have been led, we find the middle-grade imbeciles of a congregate family. They are orderly and neat at their school tables, because, from habit training, they have become so. They are patient under the discipline of light work, many of them becoming useful drudges and domestic servants. They crowd forward into our great laundry, where, commencing with the folding of our table napkins, they come to dispute with one another for the use of the ironing-table or power-mangle. The tone of the place being industry, they creep out of their sloth and indolence to keep lagging steps with the crowd that carries them forward.

The unfairness of applying to the highest grade, or indeed to any

grade of imbecile children, the word "idiot," in any other than its generic sense, will occur to any sympathetic and thinking person, as he steps across the threshold of the class room, or calisthenium, devoted to the higher grades of our defective children.

The mental deficiency or deviation is often so slight, or the imperfection is found in such a limited range, perhaps involving only the power to form a judgment of values, or a judgment of social proprieties, or a judgment of moral risk, or a judgment of the prevalent wickedness outside of asylums, that it may seem strange that several of these boys and girls should be under the care of an institution of this character.

In this first rank are often found children who have been typical cases of idiocy from deprivation, who, under the advantages of educational influences especially adapted to the infirmity, rise to the first rank, many to become self-supporting under kindly guidance, but who, left to themselves, sink lower in their enforced isolation.

SUSCEPTIBILITY TO IMPROVEMENT.

This has already been favorably suggested in the description given of degrees and grades of idiocy. The wisdom and economy of their training and education are no longer a question in those communities where institutions have been established. It is now a universal admission that one of the pointings of nature is that any organized creature, from monad upward, may be modified for advancement or retrogression, for good or ill, by the environments of its early life. None so subject to this law as human beings, and no humanity more obedient to it than the idiotic or feeble-minded child.

Faith, patience, and the peculiar attributes of feminine skill have been exercised on more than five thousand congenital imbeciles in the institutions of these United States, and the results are quite up to the reasonable expectations of those who, in the beginning, projected this work. The Ohio institution reports that 24 to 30 per centum of its inmates become capable of self-support. The Kentucky institution reports about the same percentage. If we, of the Pennsylvania institution, should count the available labor of those whom we retain on our free lists because of their service, perhaps almost the same favorable showing might be made. Of those discharged by us, 10 per centum are reported as getting along quite well and earning their living under moderate and judicious guardianship. Our institutions have received almost unanimous approval

from parents and guardians whose children or wards have been placed with us; and, even when necessity has compelled the re-admission to almshouses of discharged cases, the testimony of county authorities is nearly always commendatory of the improved condition of their waifs. They note the diminished toil in administering to them, and often acknowledge that these children trained in our institutions become valuable in the county hospitals and infirmaries.

It is not in harmony with the urgent and diffusive work of this Conference for me to recite cases confirmatory of these statements; and, moreover, the report of individual successes without as lengthy rehearsal of failures excites fancies about a very practical work, which end in disappointment and hindrance to the real progress of our institutions. Suffice it here to say that, in our own family of four hundred and fifty inmates, we count the productive value of work performed by the industrial classes as equal to \$400 per month (that is a saving of wage labor of \$400 per month), the performers being all imbecile persons, and some quite idiotic, who, unemployed, would not only be unproductive consumers, but worse; and as confidently I can state that ninety per centum of those received are signally and appreciably benefited in their own personal happiness, in their habits of nicety and cleanliness, in their notions of right and wrong, in their perceptions of the relations of things, in their sensibilities to external influences, and in their development of normal selfhood.

Our work has been blindly done for years, based on the successes of accidental and experimental activity; but modern discovery floods our labor with a new light, and our experiences come to confirm the physiologist, who finds that it is not only true that, under sensory and mental exercise, cell growth and atomic residua are induced in an undeveloped, possibly in a defective, part of the brain, but that the lost function of the impaired centre of one side or of one part of the brain may be restored in the development of another or of the corresponding and, until now, inoperative centre of the opposite side. This the physiologist calls the vicarious substitution of one centre by another.

A recent writer in the *Popular Science Monthly* presents the same physiological theory in another form, and with the merit that it has been proven by direct experimentation on lower animals and by the results of disease in the human subject.

In brief, it is this: The various perceptions and the various memories they fix have certain defined areas, or centres, which are con-

nected with the external organs by insulated white nerve fibres over which the sensory impressions are carried. The perceptive and memory centres, or areas, have each an inner boundary, where resides a present power to discriminate and memorize. This is called the *actual* area, outside of which is another boundary, enclosing what is called the *potential* area of the same capacity. Disease may attack the actual area, or, as possibly happens with many of our feeble-minded children, this actual area may not exist; but there resides in the lobule, or potential area, a power of development under necessity and stimulating impressions. Like the unimproved outlying acres of a farm, which, upon the exhaustion of the home tract, are by tillage made to rival the original, so this outlying potential area may come to possess all the powers of perception and of fixing memory pictures of which our patient had been temporarily deprived or had the misfortune to be born without.*

Seguin, the first to apply himself studiously to the training of idiotic children, pointed out more than thirty years ago a physiological education of defective brains, based on cultivating the hand, eye, and ear. It was sneered at by many as visionary; but the experience of his little school in Paris and the confirmation of the great institutions of which he was the seed-planter are to-day verified by the testimony of pathology and experimental physiology.

THE OBLIGATION OF SOCIETY TO ITS DEFECTIVE MEMBERS.

We might consider helpless idiocy in its relation to organized society from two points:—

1. That of the preservation of society itself from a baneful, hindering, or disturbing element generated within itself and too often from avoidable causes.
2. The right inherently existing in a defective and irresponsible member of society to protection from the body in exact ratio to his necessities.

Two modes of treatment suggest themselves when considering the supposed increase of the defective classes:—

The one is a cold, uncharitable disregard of misery itself, accepting the evil as a necessity and as a penalty for the offence against the laws of religion or of society or of health by which it comes, its advocates looking for the self-extirpation of defective classes and families, and the "survival of the fittest."

* "Where and How We Remember." By M. Allen Starr, M.D., in *Popular Science Monthly*, September, 1884, p. 609.

Another view of this serious subject confesses that the need of this age and of ages to come is paternal government rather than an ideal impersonal government,—a government wisely dealing with the wants of individual man. It recognizes that a very large portion of humanity is still in its swaddling clothes, or scarcely yet beginning to walk, requiring much help and much patience before arriving at that self-knowledge which guarantees self-care. It holds that, in our present development, government, where best for the common weal, should assume the relation, not of almoner, but of parent to its subjects: licensing here and refusing license there; correcting an evil at one point or absolutely abating that evil at another; giving personal liberty where self-reliance proves its rightful claim, abridging personal liberty where its exercise is attended with a crusade against the rights of the peaceable, whether in the spoliation of the house-breaker or house-burner, in the tyranny and brutality of the inebriate's home, or in the corruption of the very springs of life in the prostitution of the brothel.

The only satisfactory way for a physician to treat a diseased condition is on a clear diagnosis of his case. Until that is made, his course is likely to be doubtful and hesitating; and errors are not only possible, but probable. So, in social and governmental dealing with the defective classes, it is all-important that a right interpretation be put upon observed phenomena; for, if a mistake be made in the premises, the sequences of the relief or correction administered may be most detrimental. To illustrate what I mean, I cannot do better than to note the so-called Juke family from a point of observation which does not seem to have been hitherto taken. Max and Ada Juke rarely fail of an introduction in these Conferences, and always, it seems to me, under a cloud of prejudice, that may bias judgment as to true conditions. Any close study of this unfortunate people reveals clearly the existence of a neurotic taint as the rational explanation of their crime, pauperism, and bestiality, and suggests all through their needed protection against themselves.

The undoubtedly weak-minded Juke sisters married the two sons of Max, who is known as "a drunken, eccentric, and lazy ne'er-do-weel" who leaves a large illegitimate offspring. It is not strange that these unions entailed blindness, pauperism, prostitution and crime upon children and grandchildren. The record of Ada Juke through the marriage of her first legitimate child, who married her first cousin, is only less fearful than that of the illegitimate line. Both, in the sixth generation, after passing through the darkest

and most loathsome channels of impurity, are represented in living stocks of half-witted bastards, criminals, and paupers, who will continue to roll up the bill of expense for petty crime and misdemeanors and the untold expense of ruined character, wherever such plague spots are permitted. Had it not been too early in the history of society, it is fairly presumptive that the twenty-one grandchildren of Max and Ada might have been recognized as unfit members, and, very consistently with the public welfare and their own best interests, have been detained for the better part of their lives in jails or sequestered in asylums.

The percentage of idiocy and insanity as presented by Mr. Dugdale's Table VII. on diseases, malformations, and injuries, bad as it is, is manifestly short of the truth; for an analysis of the specific tables furnishes larger proportions. Blindness, an evident physical infirmity, is reported, because so evident; feebleness of mind and insane conditions, less readily distinguished, are passed over in silence; while the bias of study, being the detection of pauperism, crime, and prostitution, gives comprehensive figures.

We cannot believe that less idiocy and less insanity existed in the Juke family than pertains to general population; but, rather, as the negro population exhibits in the census a lower ratio of idiocy than do the whites, so the general mental enfeeblement of the whole Juke race was such that only profound cases of idiocy could protrude themselves into recognition above the low and sensuous level of this stock of half-wits. But leaving this, with the hope expressed that another "mother of criminals" shall be studied hereafter in the charitable and illuminating light of her presumed weakness of mind, I submit that there is free in the community a great host of crime-doers who are not so much criminals as mental and moral imbeciles. Of these habitual criminals, it is estimated that their average crime life is eleven and a half years, of which three and a half years only are spent in jail. Of six thousand prisoners examined in Scotland by competent authority, twelve per centum exhibited decided mental weakness independent of those who became actually insane. A movement has been inaugurated in that country toward life confinement of the incorrigible, morally insane and the imbecile classes, that their propagation shall cease, and thus crime be measurably diminished by the partial extinction of criminals.

To those who look upon moral insensibility as an imbecility, Mr. Brockway's analysis of his prisoners (or patients, as he facetiously—wisely?—terms them) at the Elmira Reformatory is very sug-

gestive. Defining the moral sense as shown in "filial affections, sense of shame or sense of personal loss," he reports of 1,463 examinations: absolutely no moral sense, 1,082, or 73.9 per cent.; possibly some moral sense, 229, or 15.7 per cent.; ordinarily sensitive, 88, or 6 per cent.; specially sensitive, 64, or 4.4 per cent. And yet, further to establish the doubt as to our present interpretation of the nature and origin of crime, the researches of a pathologist, Moriz Benedikt, are significant. He publishes an anatomical study of the brains of criminals, describing the convolutions of twenty-two brains. He found in these a marked peculiarity,—a tendency of the principal fissures to run into each other, producing what he terms a "confluent fissure type,"—not a formation of new fissures by the development of new convolutions, but the cutting up of a comparatively simple series of convolutions by the formation of secondary fissures or the prolongation of those usually existing beyond the normal limits, thus distinctively altering the normal formation of the surface (the active) part of the brain. Unfortunately, brief mention is made of the mental abilities of these twenty-two cases. In seven, the men are described as excessively ignorant or of weak mental power.

Our assistant, Dr. A. W. Wilmarth, a reliable pathologist, in examining the convolutions of the brains of twelve feeble-minded children, has observed, among other anomalies, the same peculiarities as are mentioned in Benedikt's cases. Hardly an idiotic brain has been examined which does not show this departure from what is regarded as the normal type, and in many of them to a marked degree.

Corresponding observations with the same results have been made by Dr. Mills, of Philadelphia, and by foreign observers, showing very decided analogies between the brains of criminals and the brains of idiotic and imbecile persons not under criminal accusation.

Akin to the criminal, less responsible and more pitiable, is a great host moving up and down our country roads, the much-abused tramp. The stamp of his intellectual weakness is clear in his features, in his loose articulations, in his aimless, dogged contentment. He is rarely a thief, as he lacks a thief's capacity. Of over two score of these fellows examined recently, more than one-half were vagabond imbeciles, irresponsible for the condition in which they are living, and, failing the offices of mercy in their childhood, deserve the kindness of a lifelong detention within enclosures devoted to bringing out their own self-support.

There is another sorry phalanx of misery,—the abandoned prostitutes of our city, recoiling on community for its laxity of law and surveillance, and contaminating how many births of even lawful wedlock! Who are these prostitutes? A class so feeble in will power, so ignorant, and of such uncontrollable emotions that it is no forced conclusion that very many are unsound and irresponsible, the sinned against rather than the sinners.

And yet another host darkening the whole land,—the alcoholic inebriate,—more numerous than all the insane, idiotic, blind, and deaf mutes together, reinforcing the ranks of pauperism by other legions, and sowing a birthright of misery unto children of the third and fourth generations. Expert physicians are telling us—and daily their testimony is better received—that alcoholism is a neurosis, amenable to medical measures under the *régime* of complete isolation from provoking causes. This is wiser than to call it a crime, without depriving the criminal of his misused liberty.

To the practical, it would seem that the functions of government are not discharged toward its peace-loving, frugal, and law-abiding citizens so long as these disorderly, contaminating, and misery-breeding elements have share and share alike of that “personal liberty under the Constitution” which should only attach to personal reliability. Under the ethics of law and religion, they are almost unreached. The so-called education of the schools is admitted in the oldest communities to furnish a great many of its pupils only a better armament for mischief. So that, education, law, and religion failing, shall we not reform our conclusions as to the nature of the ills from which we suffer? May not the study of the humble idiot and imbecile in our institutions aid us in discovering some analogies heretofore undreamed of, and perhaps a healing to the so-called corrupt, and the only safety to the healthy, be found in an arbitrary but legal isolation of the unfit.

There is no field in political economy which can be worked to better advantage for the diminution of crime, pauperism, and insanity than that of idiocy. The early recognition of some of its special, upper, and more dangerous forms should be followed by their withdrawal from their unwholesome environments and their permanent sequestration before they are pronounced criminals, and have, by the tuition of the slums, acquired a precocity that deceives even experts. Only a small percentage should ever be returned to the community, and then only under conditions that would preclude the probability of their assuming social relations under marriage, or becoming sowers of

moral and physical disease under the garb of professional tramps and degraded prostitutes.

How many of your criminals, inebriates, and prostitutes are congenital imbeciles? How many of your insane are really feeble-minded or imbecile persons, wayward and neglected in their early training, and at last conveniently housed in hospitals, after having wrought mischief, entered social relations, reproduced their kind, defied law, antagonized experts and lawyers, puzzled philanthropists, and in every possible manner retaliated on their progenitors for their origin and on the community for their misapprehension? How many of your incorrigible boys, lodged in the houses of refuge to be half educated in letters and wholly unreached in morals, are sent out into the community the moral idiots they were at the beginning, only more powerfully armed for mischief? And pauperism breeding other paupers, what is it but imbecility let free to do its mischief?

We should not deplore, and we may certainly anticipate, a steady statistical increase of insanity and idiocy for the next four or five decades: even should it be at the rate of hundreds per centum increase for each census, it will indicate not so much an absolute increase of the diseases named as a broadening of definitions and better analysis of conditions; — common sense, and a higher Christianity dealing with defective and irresponsible people.

THE INSTITUTION.

When the facts relating to the distribution of idiotic and feeble-minded persons in any settled community are intelligently canvassed, it becomes conclusive that this distribution is not only detrimental to the individuals themselves, but subversive of the best interests of the family and neighborhood. Their aggregation into institutions becomes, therefore, not only a charitable, but a conservative thing to do.

American institutions, having been already in existence thirty years, it may be asserted that the experimental period is passed, and that, when States shall proceed to legislate for these defectives, it will be done on a permanent basis.

The probability is that, because of the peculiar adaptation of feeble-minded persons to a community organization, State institutions may be created to embrace the care of all whose dependence needs it, and inclusive, too, of all the multiform grades; for it seems despotic to omit those who are epileptic, paralytic, or choreic, permitting a physical impediment to bar the individual from beneficial influences to which he is as responsive as any. This all-compre-

hending care has been contemplated in Pennsylvania under the suggestion of an asylum village to be developed from the nidus already existing at Elwyn.

The grades of specific idiocy and imbecility, as already described, presuppose a wide range of classification; and, at the commencement, this should be planned for somewhat as follows:—

1. Central buildings for the school and industrial departments, in the rear of which, or near at hand, should be located the shops.
2. A separate building, not too remote, for a nursery department, with such special arrangement of dormitories, day-rooms, and conveniences as the infirm character of the children committed to it may require.
3. Other more remote buildings for the asylum department, with arrangements to correspond for the necessities of both care and training.
4. Provision should eventually be made for colonizing lads as they grow into manhood in properly arranged and located houses as farmers, gardeners, dairy help, etc.
5. Other smaller structures, erected as the demand requires, might be devoted to the grouping of pay-patients, if the sentiment of the State would justify this. Or, at all events, such separated cottages would be useful for the lodgement of cases requiring unusual attention and isolation.

All of the above would constitute a general asylum or institution for the idiotic and feeble-minded of the State, and should be located at a point accessible to a city or town of considerable size and on a well-watered and productive farm..

However limited in capacity, it should have at least fifty acres of good land devoted to garden and pleasure grounds, and more in proportion to the proposed growth and the special location. The State institution on the scale proposed should have a very large area of ground—hundreds of acres. In the great commonwealths of the West, sections of land should even now be set apart for the rapidly approaching future. An abundance of pure water is a desideratum, and means should be provided for raising it to reservoirs that will supply the highest part of the building with an amount equal at least to fifty gallons per inmate *per diem*. The appointments of the institution should be as homelike as possible, attractive and roomy without extravagance. The general dormitories of the schools and educational department should be arranged to accommodate from fourteen to sixteen or twenty, and there should be a few separate

and small rooms for single cases requiring special care. Adjoining the larger dormitories should be small communicating chambers for attendants, teachers, etc.

Those buildings devoted to the asylum department should be planned to secure an abundance of sunlight and air without obstructive partitions, with great liberality of floor space, and be located at some distance from the other departments,—say from one-half to three-quarters of a mile.

Large space must be allowed in the principal buildings for day-rooms, in each of which not over twenty or thirty should collect. The school-rooms should be of similar size and limitation. At least, five hundred cubic feet of air per inmate should be apportioned to these rooms. Ample clothes rooms are likewise necessary on all the floors and accessible to the dormitories. Very liberal accommodations of lavatory and water-closets are imperative, for the reason that habit-training in personal cleanliness is one of the most obvious requirements. A large calisthenium or drill floor, and an audience room that shall fully accommodate at one sitting all the children and employés, are indispensable to the perfect institution.

The first story should be completely above ground, and of such height of ceiling and abundance of glass and doors that cheerfulness and purity of air would be actually secured.

The building should not be over three stories in height, those of the asylum department not over two stories. Basement stories of low ceilings and partly underground or closely embanked are highly objectionable places for day-rooms for feeble-minded children. The floors should be laid in the very best manner of the best materials, the joints filled and the whole oiled or painted or otherwise rendered impervious to dirt and soil. Those of bath rooms, water-closets, etc., should be made of granolith or other material that will not absorb moisture. The stairways should always be of iron, stone, or other indestructible material, ample in size and number, of easy tread and rise, and convenient of access, to afford ready egress in case of accident or fire.

The most modern and best approved methods of ventilation, heating, drainage, sewerage, etc., should be adopted.

The general grounds of the institution should be hedged or fenced to keep off improper intrusion, but be freely used by the inmates for walking-exercise and work. Large and convenient play-areas should be provided for the various classes, and asphalt or other pavements be laid in those provided for the lower grades.

An institution for twelve hundred inmates may be thus described.* It is located, if possible, on broken ground, that ravines, woods, etc., may grant sequestration to the lower grades, but with arable grounds and levels for the promotion of agricultural work. The population embraces at least seven grades; and each of these should be again reclassified, in at least three separate buildings or groups of buildings.

A community thus organized will have its industrial members, capable of doing the washing and ironing and domestic service of the whole, so that hired labor from the outside shall be reduced to a minimum. It will have its fields and gardens, which can be worked by the industrial classes in the production of a very large portion of the food. The same community will have its schools, where young, improvable feeble-minded children can be educated in habits of propriety and to read and write. Various forms of amusement will be developed. Many imbecile persons possess imitative faculties, by which they come to create and enjoy simple games, amusements, etc. Many have musical inheritance, and can be trained to use fairly well, cornets and stringed instruments. So that such an ideal institution develops within itself means not only of subsistence, but means of improvement and amusement. The low-grade classes are made to participate in the trained capacities of the higher classes. The cornet band, the stereopticon, the dance, may lighten the dulness of even the infirmary, and all at little or no cost outside of the stock in apparatus and appliances.

An institution so organized and developed furnishes an abundance of life and variety to the best class of attendants and teachers, who will come to live in and labor for it. To expect to get proper care-takers for an institution devoted exclusively to the lowest idiots and epileptics is to expect what is impossible. But the graded institution on a large scale and in scattered pavilions and cottages presents a multitude of phases and interests, that make official residence in one not only tolerable, but singularly attractive.

One of the agencies to this end is the constant movement between the proximate families. Details of trained cases may be temporarily installed in the infirmary department, there to aid in nursing, cooking, etc. The monotony of living is broken into, and the inmates get the change which their temporary irritabilities and inharmonies require. The population of two whole pavilions may be annually

* With this paper, Dr. Kerlin presented a diagram of the farm, adjacent lands, present plant, and prospective additions of the Pennsylvania Institution, all of which when accomplished will furnish residence for twelve hundred feeble-minded persons.

turned over; and the stereotyped sameness of the views out of doors, and of the furniture, places, and sights indoors, be completely broken. Work is, by an experienced psychologist, pronounced a sedative to disordered minds. So, too, sharp and unexpected change of place will establish a new order of thought, and break up a perversely intractable habit.

It is the small institution against which may be pronounced the objection of moral "hospitalism." The large, diffuse, and thoroughly classified institution is another affair, and can be to its wards and employes as cosmopolitan as a city.

No work that is worth doing can be well done without a liberal expenditure: the appropriations of to-day are but the beginning for this class of State dependents, if it be even less than well done on the line which has now been marked, and, coming from the general tax, must grow to an oppressive burden, if this humanitarian policy be pursued to its end under conditions as now existing.

But the State, adopting as its policy the protection in institutions of the defective classes, acquires a right of inquest into the causes generating this tremendous burden to the thrifty tax-payer, who must be protected from the rapacious social ills which deplete his own strength.

If the State assumes this duty, it may exercise the right to lessen the drain on its resources, when it can be proven that more than half the bulk of all this misery and its cost are avertible. Statistics are everywhere pointing that way; and it needs only the education of the people and perhaps some prohibitory legislation, springing out of popular sentiment and aversion, to diminish the number of the wards of any Commonwealth by choking the sources whence they spring.

To this end, it would be wise State economy to attach to all appropriations for charitable purposes an enabling clause that institutions disbursing this charity should contribute to the Commonwealth, in as precise form as possible, statistics of the origin of the evils they affect to relieve. Or, as it is made the duty of boards of public charities to act as bureaus of statistics, these bodies should be so well supported that they could direct investigation in more minute forms than can now be done, and to distribute tracts very freely among the public through their county organizations, presenting in sharp lines such illustrations of deterioration of race as these inquiries must furnish.

Supported by an influence of this sort, our institutions might present such an array of facts as to be convincing of the truth, and

converting to better forms of living,—to natural marriage, normal birthhood, and noble child-culture.

In this way only can a State receive adequate returns for its charitable expenditures. She will not receive them so much in the betterment of the imperfect, pauper, and criminal she protects, as in a scientific analysis of causes for these conditions through a knowledge of which must come prevention.

The State, assuming her highest function of protection, obtains at last her authority for prevention. Not until she assumes one will she be able to carry out the other.

THE OBLIGATION OF CIVILIZED SOCIETY TO IDIOTIC AND FEEBLE-MINDED CHILDREN.

BY HON. H. M. GREENE, LAWRENCE, KANSAS.

IF civilization is the material expression of the beautiful tenets of Christianity, if the acme of its perfection is reached when society shall believe and practise the code of the Great Teacher, and hold the rights and claims of each other as sacred and dear as our own, it will not be difficult to accept this question as already disposed of. No mere matter of the helplessness, the repulsiveness, or the unprofitableness of these subjects, will affect its decision, other than the natural impression such characteristics should make upon our sympathy. If civilization accepts the task, without demur, of caring for the other dependent classes, upon what principle of logic or reason can prudent provision for the idiot and imbecile be denied?

Let us first briefly glance at the obligations civilized society is under on its own account.

Organized society, which is but another name for the State, is an accretion of individuals guaranteeing the inherent rights common to each, and requiring in return for the protection it affords the best possible service of the citizen. One of the duties of selfhood is the maintenance and care, in their proper proportions, of each and every member of the body. If self-preservation is the first law of nature, a policy which allows any one of these members to become useless or deformed is suicide to the entire system. This being true, —and no physiologist will doubt or deny it,—it is equally the duty of the family to exercise equal care for each member thereof, not one of whom has been abridged in a single right by his entrance into that relation. When this self-care is impossible, it is the duty of other members of the family to exercise this supervision, at least until the individual becomes qualified to assume the task himself. No one regards this action as charity. It is accepted as a duty, inseparable from the relation which the parties sustain to each other. The same law which holds the relations in either of these organizations rules in the State.

The same watchful intelligent care which the individual extends over even the minor parts of the system, that thereby injury to all parts may be prevented, is but the index of the oversight which must in a government comprehend all details, and every particle, even the most minute, and of the skilful application of remedies to the diseased or of preventions to the threatened portions. It follows that, if in the system of society there are found elements of in-harmony, a proper regard for the welfare of the whole dictates such care for the diseased portions as shall restore the harmonious conditions. It is admitted that some scientists have met this question in another way, and have advocated the excision of such affected members for the benefit of the whole body. But every dictate of humanity and enlightened self-interest prompts a use of restorative appliances, at least, before the act of amputation is performed. Not only has no person or community a right to invade the rights of another innocent of crime, but such invasion is in direct conflict with the fundamental principle of all governments, that which renders such organizations necessary; namely, protection for the weak. So that the duty of a government is but partly performed when it refuses to cast away or cut off its incomplete members, and magnanimously allows them to remain under its nominal protection, without its real care. They *must* be cared for, and, if possible, restored to a condition which will cease injuriously to affect the other members. For, in all this statement, I regard not the interest of the affected members, but solely the effect of their condition upon the whole system. The duty, therefore, referred to is the duty due the interests of good government.

The fact that every individual is not self-supplied with ability to live comfortably and happily is the primal argument for human organizations. The family exists as an organism, because the children are unable to live without the fostering care of the family. The State exists because families are too weak to endure without its protection. So the State is really, and perhaps almost mainly an outgrowth of this just sentiment of care for each of its component parts.

In his essay on the "Progress of Nations," Seaman says: "Nearly all the elements and instruments of progress being artificial, invented by the intellect and genius of man, they require intellect and intelligence to use them advantageously. Hence a defect or weakness of natural element, and a want of intelligence and knowledge of the principles and instruments of mechanism, are both great

impediments to the progress of a people." If this be true in the aggregate, it will be true in detail. If ignorance is a defect or a weakness in a government, and constitutes an impediment to the progress of its people, the difference between the injury wrought by general or partial destitution of knowledge becomes only a question of quantity.

In his celebrated essay in the *Massachusetts Quarterly Review*, in 1848, on the causes and prevention of idiocy, Dr. Howe says:—

An ignorant, vicious, or suffering class is a disturbing class. It is a disturbing force in society. It has no business there. It must be removed, or there never can be order. Now, as it cannot be removed bodily, because the men and women composing it cannot be put out of the world, the only way of removing the disturbing forces is to change them into intelligent, virtuous, and enjoying persons; and then there will be harmony.

It has been indicated that a proper and, indeed, one of the most important subjects of governmental supervision is the scrutiny of all incongruous and inharmonious elements, and the adoption of measures for their conversion into harmonious action. And the insignificance of the obstacle cannot be logically pleaded. A grain of dust may blind a king. A beggar has slain a ruler, and changed the whole course of statecraft. A single woman mentally malformed has cost a great city many lives and thousands of treasure. The errant boy, who knows no guide or governor save his own lawless will, may lead a mob to the sack of a burning city. The statesman must recognize these perils, and provide against them. "Ill can he rule the great that cannot reach the small." If Almighty Power stoops to support the falling bird, it may surely be considered a task no less divine to sustain the struggling child, and guide its feet in ways of purity and peace, especially when by this intervention many lives may be saved to the service of the State, who, but for it, would have been ruined by the tempter thus himself rescued.

It may be held that the principle which governs in the family is affection for each member, and that this sentiment should still be permitted to provide suitable care for its defective members. But it can be shown that public welfare often demands measures which are strongly opposed by family affection. Vaccination is deemed a necessary operation, in order to protect the community; but it is often violently rejected by family affection. The patient dreads the nauseous medicine, and refuses to receive it, even while convinced that it will remove the disease from which he suffers. So the ignorance

or false kindness of the family often negatives the acts most needed to promote its welfare, and in a degree that of the community. Of all the agencies for promoting and maintaining health, the ordinary family is least reliable and successful. That the ignorant, the superstitious, the abjectly poor, even the openly vicious, should be intrusted with the care and improvement of the most desperately deplorable case requiring aid, is a proposition, abhorrent as it seems, which is often urged by pretended statesmen. Scarcely better is the attitude of those States which permit their insane and idiotic population to die in county jails, wanting not means, but disposition, to build asylums for their care.

In the paper previously mentioned, Dr. Howe says, alluding to the idiots in the State of Massachusetts, said to have been a thousand in number at that time:—

“Yet these thousand senseless human beings, who are utterly dependent upon others, who are regarded as irresponsible by the law, who may commit even murder without legal or moral guilt, are only occupants of the lowest rank in the social scale. Rising above them, little by little, are other ranks, up to the high platform upon which stand our most gifted and best educated men and women. In the rank next above the idiot stand those helpless creatures who are supposed to know right from wrong, and from whom are drafted almost all the tenants of our jails and prisons.” And it might be added that above these rise, rank upon rank, successive gradations of enfeebled intellects, each capable of successful development, yet each banned by the contemptuous voice of the public as idiots.

This quotation opens appropriately to a broader aspect of this work. There is certainly a field which, all will admit, may be profitably filled in the training of the multitudes in every State who are incapable of instruction in the common schools, and yet may be taught by the peculiar methods of the institutions for feeble-minded, and may thus become, under suitable supervision, factors in the productive forces of the State. If he is a public benefactor who causes two blades of grass to grow where but one grew before, of how much higher honor shall he be thought worthy, who has rescued from the garbage heap of society, into which have been shot as rubbish, the waste remnants, materials converted from incendiary menaces to intelligent and honest, if humble, citizens of society? No one can refuse to acknowledge the importance of this work. Without in the least joining in the contemptuous condemnation of the endeavors for the education of the idiot,—while, in fact, claiming for it that it is

one of the loftiest in design and purpose among the grand beneficent operations of the age,—the training of feeble-minded children, that class of youth who possess faculties, few and dormant as they may be, will be readily seen by all to be labor well bestowed in the interest of society. It is in the interest of the repression of vicious instincts and dispositions, and the culture of powers which are capable of rendering the possessor and the State some service.

If there is a responsibility of different degree resting on the State to provide for its idiotic and insane, what shall constitute the difference? If insanity is a disease, why shall the Commonwealth endeavor to effect a cure in this rather than in other classes of disease? If the feeble-minded children of the State are susceptible of improvement by culture, why shall the educational benefits bestowed upon more favored minds be denied them, in a scale adapted to their comprehension? It is surely only justice that we plead for in the right of the one class to education as of the other to cure. The question of the cost cannot be logically nor justly pleaded in one case and denied in the other.

In the last report of the Illinois State Board of Public Charities occurs this passage:—

Suppose one-half of the idiots in the State to be under twenty-one years of age, how many of this two thousand is the State under obligation to educate, or at least to give such training as they are capable of receiving with profit to themselves? If no amount of training will make them capable of self-direction and of earning a livelihood when removed from the care and oversight of the agents appointed by the State, then of what advantage to the State—we do not say to the idiots—is this training? These are questions which have not yet been answered to our satisfaction; but upon the answer to be given to them depends the action to be taken in the matter of enlarged facilities for the care and custody of idiots upon the part of the State.

The only comment upon this which occurs to me is to substitute the word "insane" for "idiot," throughout the paragraph.

But I quote a sentiment of another character from the report. After considering at length the great cost of maintaining the several insane asylums and proposing various plans for meeting it, the report continues:—

In the decision of the question, the first and most weighty consideration should be the welfare of the insane themselves. Other considerations, certainly, are not to be ignored, and may modify materially the action to be taken. But the interest of the insane

is the only one which cannot speak for itself and make itself heard and felt. It is the highest consideration, because it is the most unselfish. It appeals, more than any other, to what is noblest in the human heart. This burden has not been imposed upon us without our receiving at the same time the necessary strength with which to bear it, and with comparative ease. If we have not understood the magnitude of the load to be carried, still less have we comprehended and been grateful for the resources which enable us to carry it almost without feeling it; that is to say, in a pecuniary sense.

Permit me to ask, Why not extend the same grand charity, or rather justice, to the work in behalf of the feeble-minded?

Perhaps this will be a proper place to object to the common term "charity" in this connection. If by charity is meant that quality which the apostle apotheosizes,—loftiest and lowliest of the sacred trio,—the State, while leaving its proper function, might be pardoned in invoking such heavenly assistance. But, if it be like the charity which doles out the crust to the back-door tramp, or like the worthy that Pollock sings, who

"With one hand . . . put
A penny in the urn of poverty,
And with the other took a shilling out,"

it will be better for the State and its beneficiaries to reject its aid. If the noble institutions of the times—those temples sacred to the restoration of fallen humanity, nearer Christ in his work than half the shrines dedicated in his name—must be fed or starved at the caprice of a thoughtless public or of a mercenary legislative lobby, it were better, perhaps, to leave their wards with their burdened families, where at least no flattering promises of amelioration are subject to such possibilities of cruel disappointment. What the officials and patrons of these institutions demand is not the vacillating support of an ethereal sentiment or the doles of an omnibus appropriation bill, subject to expansion or contraction as certain policies prevail or whims dictate, but the strong, constant sustenance of the right hand of the State, as secure in the knowledge that the asylums of the Commonwealth will be built and maintained as that the penitentiaries will be supported or the courts upheld. All we ask for is justice, which Burke terms "the great standing policy of government."

I may be met here with the statement that the States of our Union do support, generously and willingly, institutions for the dependent classes. It is not the measure, but the manner of this support, to which I object. What man among you has not known the task of waiting upon a legislature in session, and devoting days

and nights to labor the most exhausting and most humiliating incident to your position, in order to secure the passage of the necessary bill? Who that is responsible for the asylums has not felt his heart burn at the repeated insults he receives, at the equivocal coldness he meets; or has not endured the pangs of suspense, fearing that, after all his labor, some freak may strike out an appropriation for indispensable items, and force him to go back to a work weakened and impaired thereby? What would be thought of the judges of the respective circuits of a State who should attend the session of the legislature, and make personal appeals to the members to grant them living salaries? Yet the domain of one is accepted as that of justice, while the other is credited among the children of charity. Surely, in this instance at least, charity is not the greatest. We might be well content with justice.

But, before this body, I may urge a still stronger reason why the aid granted the institutions for which I speak should be bestowed as a measure of justice. Our wards are innocent of crime or fault. In the large majority of instances, they are the feeble and deformed expressions of parental sins or sorrows. And these sad traits, in very many instances, are the reflection of woes which the State has directly or indirectly caused. In my own State there have been successive eras of hostile invasion, with all the horrors of Indian and civil war, to say nothing of the occasional experiences of drouth and insect plague, which have left other traces than lonely graves and ruined homes and memories of eternal sadness. Picture a delicate woman, cultured and refined, leaving a beautiful Eastern home and loving life-long-known kindred and friends, and, in company with the man she has chosen, selecting a dwelling-place far out on the green sea of the plains, where neighbors were a day's journey away, and letters from home were weeks old before arrival. Lonely enough when he was with her; but, when he was gone and she was alone, who can picture her anxieties? And when, one awful morning, the troops brought him home lifeless and mutilated, and she realized that life for her was done, you need not to be told the effects upon her new-born child. Affrighted at every sound, in a perpetual panic, he reproduces, happily for him without her mental sensibility, the terrible ordeal through which his mother passed. This is not a fancy sketch. The horrors of the formative era of our State can never be told, especially as they fell upon our brave pioneer women. The duty of the State to her heroic dead, slain in her settlement and service, is but half fulfilled when the dead

are cared for. The unfortunate children, upon whom are impressed all the terrors of the time, are rightful claimants of her fostering care.

There is another and a broader view which I venture to present. The State which licenses the sale of intoxicating liquors becomes a partner in the transaction. The cost of the license represents only a part of this share in the partnership. For a paltry sum, the Commonwealth allows municipalities to protect the procurer of unnumbered crimes and sorrows. In some States, a provision of law makes him nominally responsible for injuries inflicted by the business of the firm; but the State bears the costs of the prosecutions and executions, leaving the widows and orphans, and the wrecks denuded and damned by the partnership, to struggle unaided through the remainder of life as best they may. Even these melancholy ruins do not represent the entire devastation wrought by this arrangement. These woes, sad as they are, are perpetuated and intensified in another generation. Innocent children are doomed to an eternal passion for debauch or to an existence of helpless imbecility. If the women of America, who endure from intemperance, evils more debasing and destructive than even African slavery inflicted upon its victims, cannot induce a prohibition of a traffic which desolates their homes and quenches their hopes, they have a right to demand that a State which has profited by the act which ruined their sinless children shall provide unquestioningly for their support.

The time will come, comrades,—and it approaches with no tardy tread,—when a State which neglects to provide for her unfortunate classes upon a full measure of justice will receive the reprobation of her sisters, when it will be deemed impertinent to doubt that legislatures will appropriate all the means which intelligent officials suggest as necessary to the successful operation of benevolent establishments, and when those whose hearts and minds are thoroughly enlisted in this—among the noblest of human employments—shall be cheered by receiving the full appreciation of the work from every right-minded citizen of the State.

VIII.

Prisons and Penitentiaries.

THE TREATMENT OF CRIMINALS.

BY WILLIAM TALLACK,

SECRETARY OF THE HOWARD ASSOCIATION.

From the Howard Association of Great Britain to the National Conference of Charities and Corrections, Greeting:

GENTLEMEN,—Agreeably with the request of your esteemed President, the Hon. William P. Letchworth, we respond to his recent letter to us by offering for your acceptance a few observations upon the class of questions in which both you and ourselves are specially interested.

In the first place, permit us to express our satisfaction that in various parts of your great Union there appears to be an increasingly intelligent regard to the practical recognition of the truth that in reference to social evils their prevention is better than even their cure. This is evinced by your energetic labors to extend the number and operation of child-saving institutions and industrial and reformatory schools, and also, to a more limited extent, by your growing efforts in regard to charity organization and the systematic investigation of those multitudinous claims for benevolent assistance, a considerable proportion of which are always found upon inquiry to have been either feigned or exaggerated.

A large amount of imposture and of waste of relief has been prevented in this country of late years by increased care in this direction. Also, the aggregate of pauperism has been permanently kept in check and even considerably decreased by the enforcement of what is termed the *house test* (that is, the alternative of admission to the discipline and restrictions of the union poorhouses or the refusal of all out-door relief) in a large proportion of the applications for parochial assistance. By this cause, in thousands of instances, the applicants have been stimulated to put forth effectual efforts for

self-help and self-sustenance, with which they would not trouble themselves so long as an easy and careless public would burden itself with their support. In thousands of other instances, the relatives of paupers have discharged their parental or filial duties, when they found that these duties would no longer be assumed by the official representatives of the hard-working and industrious rate and tax payers.

Even as to what is termed child-saving institutions, such as industrial and reformatory schools, refuges, and juvenile asylums, we are experiencing in our own country what you also doubtless find: that here, also, great care is requisite, lest the parents and other friends or relatives of children in a neglected and destitute condition should be unduly encouraged, by an excess of benevolent offers, to divest themselves of their own natural duties and obligations at the cost of the "charitable" (or rather *pseudo* "charitable") among the community.

There are innumerable drunken, vicious, lazy parents and relatives of poor children, who are always willing to thrust these young creatures into institutions which offer them gratuitous board, lodging, and education. The more you do for such, the more you may do, without really diminishing poverty and vice, but, on the contrary, vastly increasing these evils by the very means ostensibly designed to obviate them.

One of our own correspondents, an enthusiastic advocate of these institutions (very excellent in their proper place and within proper limits), recently expatiated to us upon the number of their inmates who turn out well. But, to this remark, we have had to respond that it is of still more importance to diminish the necessity and the causes which lead to so very many children being turned into these establishments, maintained at so heavy a cost to the industrious and the charitable.

The great cause, the main source, of all such pauperism and destitution, whether of juveniles or adults, is to be found in intemperance and in popular facilities for drunkenness.

Here, again, we can congratulate the intelligent philanthropists and statesmen of the American Union (especially in certain of the New England, Eastern, and Northern States) on their resolute and persevering endeavors to limit, by legal means, those centres and sources of temptation,—the drink shops and places for the common sale of alcoholic liquors. You have been able to accomplish more practical progress in this direction by legislation than has been

effected in our own country. At the same time, while our legislation has been more impotent for good, our powers and resources of moral suasion have probably exceeded yours.

Hence our prison statistics of recent years show a marked and satisfactory decrease in the daily average of prisoners, and especially in the number of serious crimes committed. This diminution is freely acknowledged by experienced authorities to be the result mainly of the efforts of temperance, or rather "teetotal" reformers, and of the collateral labors of the "Blue Ribbon" movement, the "Salvation Army," and our numerous city missionaries, and home mission efforts by the various churches and religious denominations.

We have observed with satisfaction that the condition of your prisons and convict establishments is claiming increased attention in your land. Almost simultaneously, last spring, there appeared in the *London Times* a summary (communicated to that journal by ourselves) of the reports of various Southern United States prisons from the observations of our friend, Mr. G. S. Griffiths, of Baltimore, and also in the *Century Magazine* (of New York and London) a very able paper, on the same class of establishments, by Mr. George W. Cable, one of your eminent writers. Both these accounts agree so thoroughly as to the horrible cruelties which characterize the convict establishments of the Southern States that we cannot but express a hope that the subject may claim the earnest practical attention of your own organization and of the ministers of religion and philanthropists in America, until the evils in question are either abolished or at least véry generally suppressed.

Of late years, the prison authorities of Great Britain have devoted some increased attention to the religious and educational instruction of prisoners; and, at the same time, the labors of discharged prisoners' aid societies have been facilitated and extended.

But, while reformatory influences have thus been, at any rate in some degree, encouraged, there has been maintained a vigilant care that the penal element, which is so essential a part of wise criminal treatment, shall not be lost sight of.

The most effectual and, at the same time, the most merciful and beneficent application of the penal element to prisoners is to secure their absolute separation from each other, both by day and by night. By this, we do not at all mean solitude, but just what we say; namely, separation from evil influences. Solitude is unnatural and cruel. Separation from evil, but not from good, association is a primary principle, a root element of the best treatment of criminals. It com-

bines mercy and severity in a special degree. But it must always involve, to be genuine, a due series of arrangements for the frequent visitation of each prisoner, daily, by the officers of the establishment, and also by judicious visitors from outside.

But to establish in prisons a constant jovial companionship of rogues, with food, clothing, warmth, books, music, newspapers, and attendance, superior in quality and quantity to those obtainable by the honest and virtuous poor outside,—to adopt this course is to invite crime and to induce evil. To render the condition of the brutal wife-beater, or of the "bully," the murderer, the violator, and the desperado, any other than sharply penal is to inflict a cruel injury upon defenceless women and children, and to outrage the just claims of the community for due protection against hardened and wicked ruffians.

Nor is it an economical process to make the mere present cost of criminals or their pecuniary earnings while in jail a primary matter for regard. A self-supporting, busy prison workshop may be one of the most costly in its ultimate effects, if its tendency is found in practice to increase the permanent aggregate of prisoners by reason of the insufficiently penal elements of jovial association while at work, and of indulgences and lax conditions which render such a mode of imprisonment non-deterrent, or even attractive, to the criminal classes. It has been often well observed that the chief object of a prison is to be empty. Hence the general decrease of crime and of prisoners will be the best test of efficiency rather than the amount, in dollars or pounds, of immediate prison earnings. Nevertheless, industry, with separation, is an essential element of reform.

We are told, on good American authority, that one of the sources of the very bad conditions of the county jails generally, in your great country, is the selfish and unpatriotic greed of the county sheriffs, who are said to earn enormous incomes by perquisites and other payments connected with their office and not to be placed under effectual checks or enforced responsibility. Do the conditions of American democracy enable you to raise any barriers against this and kindred evils? The subject may be worth your consideration. Among ourselves, happily, this evil at least does not exist.

Will you kindly permit us to suggest one other important subject, as worthy of your influential consideration? At the last yearly meeting of the Society of Friends (Quakers), held in London, May, 1884, a minister from America, in earnest and even piteous tones, begged the assembly to direct its attention to the appalling number of mur-

ders committed in his own country, over 2,000 per annum, chiefly in the Southern States. But what can we do in this matter? Why did he bring his piteous appeal here? It should rather be addressed to his own countrymen. And the root of the evil is obvious. It consists mainly in the popular and habitual use of weapons, such as the custom of always carrying pistols. If pistols are regularly carried, the temptation to use them fatally, on even trifling provocations, becomes almost irresistible.

We have lately received from the French government some striking statistics, bearing on this matter, from Corsica. That island has long been notorious for its bloody feuds and murders. These attained such an intolerable extent that, in the five years before 1850, there were 431 murders and assassinations in that island. Then a temporary law was passed, prohibiting the ordinary wearing of weapons. Consequent upon this, the number of murders and assassinations diminished in the next five years to 146, at least a great improvement upon the preceding number. A similar law in American States, if at all supported by popular opinion, might prevent many hundred murders annually. To secure such an important result is well worth the efforts of patriotic Christians in your country.

In conclusion, we heartily wish you a successful and interesting Conference.

PRISONS AND PENITENTIARIES IN FRANCE.

BY FERNAND DESPORTES,

GENERAL SECRETARY OF THE SOCIÉTÉ DES PRISONS OF FRANCE.

The question which we are requested to answer for the National Conference of Charities and Correction causes us some embarrassment.

The reformation of criminals is assuredly the final end sought by every student of the laws of his own country relating to prisons; but, before coming to that, there is another which, under the conditions which govern our modern legislation, equally demands his consideration. First of all, it is our duty to take care that offenders who endure the penalty of the law do not go out of prison more hardened than when they went into it, and consequently more dangerous to the community than before their imprisonment.

Now, not in France alone, but in most civilized nations of both continents, this is, alas! very far from being the case. Despite the

progress which has been made in criminal jurisprudence, we are forced to admit, with shame, that the infliction of punishment is in fact one of the most powerful instrumentalities for the depravation of society. The proof of this assertion is found in the frequency of reconvictions.

The convict who is made better by having suffered the penalty of his transgression will again take his place among honest men. If, upon his release from prison, he persists in his evil courses, and every day shows him to be more depraved and desperate, does not this demonstrate the moral impotence of the treatment to which he has been subjected?

What is the testimony given by the statistics of crime in our own land, where the utmost pains is taken to insure accuracy in the criminal returns?

Among those convicted in courts of assizes, the number of reconvictions, which, during the five years, 1851-55, was 1,870 out of 5,085 total convictions, or thirty-six per cent., rose steadily until, in 1880, it amounted to 1,392 out of 3,103 convictions, or forty-one per cent.

Among those convicted in the inferior courts of criminal correction, the number of reconvictions, which in 1851 was 30,085 out of 92,764, or thirty-two per cent., had risen in 1880 to 64,138 out of 117,575, or fifty-four per cent. Far from stopping there, this ratio during the years 1881-82 was still larger.

It is therefore obvious that, if the volume of crime in our country is increasing, the rate of increase in the number of recidivists is even more rapid.

The publication of this fact has thrown some minds into a sort of delirium. In 1872, when the Parliamentary Commission of Inquiry into the condition of the French prison system began its work, the public in general felt little interest in it. To-day, it is quite otherwise. On every hand is heard the cry of affright, and the most severe repressive measures are demanded. The public talks of nothing less than the transportation of habitual criminals to the antipodes, so that the capital may be rid of their perilous presence; and the Chamber of Deputies has passed a bill for an act to secure this result, which is now pending in the Senate.

But this bill, even if it should become a law, would afford but a temporary relief. It would make no real impression upon the evil which it seeks to remedy. In the end, it would aggravate it.

A very slight analysis of the figures, the totals of which alone I

have given, proves that the increase in the number of reconvictions has not been among convicts sentenced to hard labor in a penal colony, or to imprisonment for more than one year in a central prison, but among those sentenced, for minor offences, for less than one year to the departmental prisons.

But the bill in question provides for the transportation only of those who have previously served a sentence at hard labor or in a central prison, or who have, within a period named, been imprisoned more than five times, for not less than three months, in a departmental prison.

The majority of recidivists would be exempt from the operation of this law. It could not touch them until after they had become wholly irreclaimable. The purpose of the law is, therefore, not their reformation, but their suppression, which is not precisely the true end of prison reform.

The Commission of Inquiry appointed in 1872 by the National Assembly, whose protracted labors culminated in the law of June 5, 1875, arrived at a very different conclusion.

After having satisfied themselves of the truth of the fact which I have stated,—namely, that the number of infractions of the law is increasing annually, that the number of reconvictions is increasing still more rapidly, and that this double increase is most marked, and indeed almost solely noticeable, among misdemeanants sentenced to the departmental prisons,—it entered upon an investigation of the cause of this phenomenon, the reality of which was beyond dispute. It very soon came to the conviction that it had discovered it in the architectural construction of these prisons of inferior grade, and the consequent character of the discipline maintained in them.

Our laws recognize distinctions into the enumeration of which it is useless here to enter; but, in reality, there are not and never have been in France more than two grades of prisons.

1. Central prisons, of which we have 54, for convicts of both sexes sentenced to reclusion (for from five to twenty years) or imprisonment for from one to five years. (Those sentenced to hard labor—*travaux forcés*, or penal servitude—are sent to New Caledonia or Guiana.)

2. Departmental prisons, of which we have 382, for convicts of both sexes sentenced to imprisonment for less than one year, and for persons accused of crimes or misdemeanors while in custody, awaiting trial.

So far as the reformation of convicts is in question, the internal

management of the central prisons is detestable ; but strict discipline is maintained in them, and labor is thoroughly organized. They are subject to the authority of the general government and under the direct control of the Minister of the Interior. But they do not contain an average population of more than 14,268 prisoners.

The number of persons of both sexes committed annually to the departmental prisons is 277,422 : the number at the close of the year, December 31, does not exceed 23,659. They are also under the control of the Minister of the Interior in respect of the rules for their internal management ; but the buildings are the property of the departments, and the cost of maintenance of these prisons is defrayed by the local authorities. In scarcely any of them is there any attempt at systematic employment, and their wretched inmates drag out an idle existence in the most pernicious association.

The National Assembly's Commission had no difficulty in deciding that certainly this promiscuous intercourse is the cause of the frightful moral deterioration among departmental prisoners. Accordingly, by a unanimous vote, it resolved that, for the future, departmental prisons ought to be organized and managed on the separate system (a single cell for each prisoner, and no communication between prisoners permitted).

The Commission was of the opinion that the separate system might with propriety be introduced into the central prisons also ; but it feared that, if it should propose at the outset too radical a reform, it might encounter prejudice in certain quarters, while the objections urged against the separate system would not be equally applicable to the departmental prisons, with their short terms of sentence. It seemed wiser to wait for experience to justify the expectations of the Commission before extending the alteration to long-term prisons.

The separate system did not, however, even under these conditions, appear to the Commission to be an infallible means for securing the reformation of criminals. It thought that it would at least prevent them from leaving prison worse than when they entered it, and from exercising, while incarcerated, that baneful influence over other prisoners of which associated prisons are the theatre.* For the accomplishment of the ulterior end,—namely, the conversion of malefactors and their metamorphosis into honest men,—the solitary cell might afford a favorable soil, capable of being rendered fertile by productive labor, for which it ought to develop in the prisoner himself both the need and the inclination ; but it was essential that to the efforts of the prison officials should be superadded, under the form of “pat-

ronage," those of private charity, in order to cause good resolutions to germinate in these perverted souls while in prison and keep them alive after their discharge.

Thus it was to patronage that the mission of bringing about the rehabilitation of reformed convicts was regarded as properly belonging; and the Penitentiary Commission, while engaged in the endeavor to secure the passage of the act of June 5, 1875, took an active part in the generous efforts of some of its members to develop in France the system of care of discharged prisoners by means of patronage societies.

Such was the work planned in 1875 by the National Assembly. We say "planned," because, unfortunately, this design proved impossible of execution, in spite of the good will of the government and the exertions of the Superior Council of Prisons, which was created at that time for the purpose of superintending the execution of the new law.

What was the reason that the scheme failed of realization in practice?

We have said that the prisons in which it was proposed to inaugurate the separate system are the property of the departments. The departmental governments alone had the right, and upon them devolved the duty, of making the appropriations of money required for the necessary alterations in construction. The projectors of the scheme had, at the beginning, unanimously decided that the title to these prisons ought to be vested in the general government, so that it might carry out the provisions of the new law, and convert them, one by one, into cellular prisons, according to a plan to be adopted in advance. Unhappily, the general government declined to accept this burden, which it ought to have taken upon itself, inasmuch as it was a question of a general criminal statute, common to all citizens. But the cost would have been great, even if spread over a series of years. Certain officials, hostile to the act, took delight in turning its aims into ridicule by exaggerating them; and all that the government would consent to do was to vote a sum proportionate to the amount to be appropriated by each of the departments for the execution of the law and the reconstruction of their prisons. These conditions had to be accepted, or the project abandoned altogether.

It was easy to foretell the result. At this moment, after the lapse of eight years, out of 382 departmental prisons, only 8 have been altered to conform to the requirements of the law of June 5, 1875. The remaining 374 are in the same deplorable condition which was brought to light by the investigation of 1872.

It is true that these eight cellular prisons include some important institutions, such as the house of detention and correction at *Mazas*, and a portion of the prison of *la Santé* at Paris, also the house of detention and correction at Tours. The number of cells which they contain is 2,131. The average number of departmental prisoners in 1880 was 23,050, so that about one-tenth of the entire number have the opportunity to be treated on the separate system.

That system, however, cannot be said to have had a fair trial in the large prisons of the department of the Seine, owing to the overcrowded condition of these prisons, the insufficient number of employés, and the complete absence of patronage. It is not uncommon to see two and even three prisoners occupying a single cell, which is the most monstrous arrangement imaginable.

It is only in the prisons of Tours, of Sainte-Menehould, and of Etampes that the separate system has been at all adequately tested, and there only upon an average population of 129 prisoners.

The law of 1875 is, eight years subsequent to its enactment, very nearly a dead letter. Conclusions cannot be drawn from so limited an experience of its practical working. Nevertheless, the reports of these institutions to the Superior Council of Prisons warrant us in the assertion that the separate system, notwithstanding its restricted application, has exhibited all the advantages claimed for it by its advocates, and none of the evil consequences which were apprehended from it.

But, under these circumstances, it is impossible to accuse the law of 1875, and hold it accountable for the constantly growing number of petty offences, and especially for the number of reconvictions which the statistical records continue, year by year, to register.

As for the supplemental work of patronage, it is making progress in our country. The Société Générale de Patronage in Paris, and in the departments the societies of Bordeaux, of Nancy, of Rouen, etc., have made noble efforts to prevent discharged convicts from relapsing into crime. They have received from the government constantly increasing grants of money, and a good deal of aid from the public. They have no doubt done considerable good; but, alas! to how small a number of individuals,—one discharged convict in four thousand! They lack the solid basis which would have given permanence and vitality to their work,—the cell,—which was promised them in the law of 1875. Neither have they yet been able to secure the adoption of the English system of conditional liberation, that mighty power which the government is bound, sooner or later, to

place at their disposal. The great merit which is theirs is that of waiting patiently in expectation of a better day to come; of not becoming discouraged, but persevering heroically in the work of social regeneration which they have undertaken.

The existing state of penal administration is perfectly well understood, but it is no better than when the National Assembly began its famous inquest. Every year, the social peril becomes more threatening. Crime does not abate, and relapses into crime are more and more frequent. "From 1879 to 1880," says the official report of the Minister of Justice, "the increase in the number of recommitments has been alarming: it has risen from 70,555 to 74,009,—a gain of 3,454."

In view of these acknowledged facts, the people of France became excited; and the government, yielding to the popular feeling which it had perhaps inspired, proposed to rid the metropolis of this multitude of habitual offenders by shipping them to the colonies,—*politique de débarras*,* as one of our great writers on criminal law has characterized this proposal. It cannot be said too often that it is not only an ineffectual but a fatal policy, for it permits the evil which it vainly attempts to suppress to become chronic.

Whatever might be the effect of transportation, the more thoroughly this question is investigated and considered, the more evident it becomes that the cost to the public treasury must be enormous, and wholly beyond the resources at its command.

At this juncture, the authors of the law of 1875 come forward, and say to the government: "You desire to wage a war of extermination against habitual criminals. Very well. Why, then, do you propose to expend not less than four million dollars a year in trying an experiment, the success of which is more than doubtful, and which is prompted by panic rather than by sound judgment, in preference to providing the necessary funds for the positive, thorough enforcement of the statute of 1875, the effect of which is known and certain?" They have introduced in the Senate a bill which commits the execution of the law of June 5, 1875, not to the departments, but to the general government, as the National Assembly originally intended.

In the presence of this suggestion, the government hesitates. It understands perfectly, and does not deny, that the law of 1875 is the only means by which it can, not merely rid the country of the swarm of habitual criminals who infest the slums, but check for all time to

* No translation of this phrase will exactly convey its meaning to an English reader: it suggests that the government wishes at once to rid the capital of criminals and itself of responsibility.—Ed.

come the recruiting of this dreaded army. Yet it shrinks from assuming a pecuniary liability too great for the public treasury, and seeks to substitute for this bill a compromise bill, which, without depriving the departments of their ownership of the departmental prisons or relieving them of the expense involved in their maintenance, confers upon the general government the right to compel them, under certain conditions, to proceed at once to build, in conjunction with itself, a certain number of prisons, at least one in each department.

Though this measure must be regarded as only the initial step toward the full acceptance of the law of 1875, we welcome it as an improvement upon the existing condition of our prison system. But, if its design is to limit the scope of that act by the provisions of this, it should be rejected as wholly inadequate; for the essential condition of prison reform in France is the complete reorganization of every one of the departmental prisons.

However this may be, we take a real satisfaction in the knowledge that the question of prison reform has once more a place upon the docket of our legislative assemblies, that it has awakened there a genuine interest, and that the government is, with commendable zeal, searching for its proper solution. It is our duty to hope that, after profound reflection, it will of its own motion withdraw its support from measures which must end in bitter disappointment, after having entailed fruitless sacrifices. Thank God, the question at issue is one merely of public policy, disconnected with party politics.

The Senate has already adopted, on the 2d of last April, at the suggestion of the government, an excellent bill for preventing relapses into crime. This bill provides for the introduction into our penal institutions of the English "mark system," by the aid of which record is made daily of the conduct of prisoners, with a view to reward their efforts to do right by conditional liberation. It also appropriates money in aid of societies of patronage, in order to encourage their establishment, and to enable them to help discharged convicts in their struggle to rehabilitate themselves. Rehabilitation will efface the remembrance of their fault, and will restore to them that position among honest men which they ought not to have forfeited.

Another bill, now pending in the Senate, provides for cumulative sentences.

All these measures, which owe their initiative to the honorable Monsieur Bérenger, who reported the law of June 5, 1875, and who gave direction to the first labors of the Superior Council of Prisons,

will doubtless produce excellent results. But there is a prior necessity, without which the good results which we have a right to anticipate cannot be brought about; and that is the thorough enforcement of the law of June 5, 1875, and the conversion of our disgraceful departmental prisons into cellular prisons. So long as the corruption generated by unrestricted association is allowed to develop freely, the most assiduous efforts to arrest its ravages must remain impotent and sterile.

To conclude: France cannot at this moment indulge the flattering illusion that, by her penal institutions, she is accomplishing the reformation of adult criminals. She is compelled, to her great grief, to publish annually to the world the steady growth of a tendency on the part of her criminals to relapse into crime. But, at least, thanks to her persistent study of the subject for the past few years, thanks to the measures voted or under discussion in her National Assembly, thanks to the exertions of her government, she has taken the exact measure of the peril which threatens her, and is preparing to avert it. The struggle with criminality would have been undertaken with vigor before now, if the public revenues, drained by unusual demands for expenditure in various directions, had admitted of the earnest enforcement by the government of the law of June 5, 1875, and the adoption of the supplemental legislation which would have insured from its enforcement the best results.

IX.

Police Supervision.

THE POLICE AND JUVENILE CRIME.

BY FREDERICK L. JENKINS,

CHAIRMAN OF COMMITTEE ON POLICE SYSTEM AND ADMINISTRATION.

Our institutions of learning, our churches, our societies for the moral advancement of the people, and associations for the protection of helpless children proclaim in eloquent tones the bright side of humanity; while the reverse to all of these, the dark side, is shown by the police reports. In the absence of data other than those furnished by the police returns, we must be content to draw conclusions from them, in order to arrive at our moral status. These reports show in many instances a decrease in the number of arrests made; and they also show that the higher grades of crime are frequently committed by children. In the Report of the Brooklyn Police for 1883, we find that, in a total of 26,819 arrests, 5,462 were under 21, 911 whose ages were from 8 to 14, and 66 under 8. One-fifth of all arrests were children and young persons, and this does not represent those arrested by constables upon court warrants. Not less than 915 children between the ages of 7 and 14 were arrested by the police of Brooklyn during the year 1883 for the following offences:—

Arson, 4; assault and battery, 108; assaults, felonious, 4; begging, 10; breach of the peace, 49; burglary, 16; drunkenness, 20; larceny-grand, 11; larceny-petit, 212; lounging, 57; malicious mischief, 80; passing counterfeit money, 2; robbery, 4; till-tapping, 5; truancy, 76; vagrancy, 122; violation of city ordinances, 117; violations of State laws, 4; other offences, 11; witnesses, 3; total, 915.

As compared with New York, we find as follows:—

New York, 1882, arrests under 14, . . .	3,020;	14 to 20, . . .	4,914
" " 1883, " " " . . .	3,052;	" " " . . .	5,568
Brooklyn, 1882, " " " . . .	1,032;	" 21, . . .	4,422
" 1883, " " " . . .	977;	" " " . . .	4,485

These figures show an exhibit in favor of the decrease of juvenile crime in Brooklyn; but, still, sufficient is here shown to attract attention to the subject of the reformation of juvenile criminals. From the report of 1883 quoted above, we have selected 209 cases, involving every degree of felony, and find that 5 were of children between the ages of 8 and 14, and 63 from 14 to 21.

Is it inquired, At what age does the criminal career commence? The trade of a criminal needs to be learned and matured; and does it not begin, we ask, in childhood?

Perhaps idleness and neglect are among the chief causes of crime; and here we beg to call attention to an offence known as *corner lounging*, for which offence these arrests were made in Brooklyn during the years following: 1873, 343; 1874, 369; 1875, 479; 1876, 507; 1877, 437; 1878, 677; 1879, 730; 1880, 664; 1881, 843; 1882, 1,039; 1883, 1,192.

Here, we find a steady increase in this one offence, *corner lounging*, committed by young men; and from this evil spring the lawless gangs of felons that infest large cities. From this company of idlers, the corner groggery finds its recruits, and pauperism and crime gain their converts.

The business of a pawnbroker is sometimes utilized for mischief; and an excerpt from Report of Property Clerk of Police Department of Brooklyn for 1875 may be interesting. It says:—

“From a careful examination of the records in this office, it appears that a large proportion of property recovered during the year has been recovered from various pawnshops in this city and the city of New York. There can be no question that the almost general practice of pawnbrokers of receiving goods from minors has done much toward the encouragement of theft. As a matter of course, the young thief who finds no difficulty in disposing of his plunder is very apt to continue in his lawless pursuits. Although it is well known that a minor cannot be a party to a contract, even such a contract as the pawning of an article involves, still there are numerous pawnbrokers who wilfully ignore this fact. In one instance, we find a pawnbroker advancing to two young thieves thirty cents on a set of silver valued at \$100. Again, a second-hand pawnbroker advances to another thief about one-fifteenth part of the value of a large amount of silver. In each case, it must have been evident to the pawnbroker that the articles were stolen. Numerous instances of the same character might be given. There are in New York, at the present time (1883), one hundred and fifty-three pawnbrokers, and in Brooklyn twenty-three. I do not wish to characterize pawnbrokers as receivers of stolen goods; but, when a pawnbroker daily and repeatedly receives from the same children, whose appearance does

not indicate poverty, articles of wearing apparel, school-books, etc.,—as in a recent instance in Brooklyn,—without taking the pains to inquire whence they were obtained, then he should be punished. The amount of property lost or stolen, as reported by the police of Brooklyn in 1883, was \$69,506.14. Of this amount, \$34,101.62 was recovered from pawnshops."

Crime should be made unprofitable to the criminal. Some people err in judgment as to the police correcting all the evils which spring from society. This is often manifested in open criticism of the methods and character of the police. A few examples may be introduced here. One writer says, "The interests of individuals and of society are under the guardianship of the police departments," and that "police" is another name for "care of public welfare." And Blackstone says, "By the public police and economy, I mean that due regulation and domestic order of the kingdom, whereby the individuals of a State, like members of a well-governed family, are bound to conform their general behavior to the rules of propriety, good neighborhood, and good manners, and to be decent, industrious, and inoffensive in their respective stations." Opposed to this view, Sydney Smith says, "If it be asked, Who are the constituted authorities legally appointed to watch over morals? our answer is, that there are in England about twelve thousand clergy, not unhandsomely paid for persuading the people; and about four hundred justices, thirty grand juries, etc." Bentham divides the business of police into heads, placing the first head under that of prevention of offences. If the police are to prevent offences, then the judiciary would have nothing to do; and, without a proper judiciary, the very rules that govern society would become inoperative.

The police are often exposed to the shafts of ridicule. *Punch*, in describing a guardian of the peace, says: "Amid the bustle of Piccadilly or the roar of Oxford Street, P. C. X. stalks along, an institution rather than a man. We seem to have no more hold of his personality than we could possibly get of his coat, buttoned up to the throttling point." "A friend of mine," said Erskine, "was suffering from continual wakefulness, and various methods were taken to send him to sleep, but in vain. At last, his physicians resorted to an experiment which succeeded perfectly. They dressed him in a watchman's coat, put a lantern in his hand, and placed him in a sentry-box; and he was asleep in ten minutes." More people are disposed to accept the latter description rather than the former, which makes him of so great importance, in accordance with the two authors

quoted above. I believe, however, that an officer should use wisdom as to his calling in the prevention of offences rather than wait for the commission of one before he acts. A police officer who prevents theft or burglary or arson, making the streets safe by night, is a minister of justice. But it does seem as though his whole education were in making arrests, for in this the greatest credit lies: it tends likewise to his speedy promotion.

Again, Sydney Smith says: "The fear of God can never be taught by constables, nor the pleasures of religion be learned from a common informer. A morality that depends upon such means does not amount to much." And, as to forcing men to do right, he continues: "But such duties are not the objects of legislation; they must be left to the general state of public sentiment, which sentiment must be influenced by example, by the exertions of the pulpit and the press, and, above all, by education." To tell an officer that the morals of society were in his keeping would be cause for his astonishment.

It seems that in all ages certain callings have been considered by governments as proper to be under the surveillance of the authorities. Among them have been liquor places, pawnbrokers, junk-dealers, etc.: in the first named, because the peace is liable to be broken, and an applicant for a license must produce evidence of good character. To expect the police, generally, to prevent a breach of the laws regulating the morals of the community, would be, indeed, a novel proposition to most of them, and would require upon their part a degree of intelligence, which they are not, by most people, supposed to possess. All occupations, even that of a police officer, must be learned; and results such as are attained from experience cannot be expected when changes are constantly occurring in the management of our police with every turn of the political wheel. Within the space of five years, we find that, out of forty-seven prominent cities of the United States, six changed their executive police four times, thirteen three times, and twenty-eight twice.

With these frequent changes, how can it be expected that men should become competently fitted for their duties, which duties are, as some claim, to be guardians of the public welfare in morals as well as care-takers for the safety of persons and property?

The mutations that occur in the cities of the Middle and Western States, where the police are changed every time a new mayor is elected, are pernicious, and work disastrously in police administration. (Civil service reform is on trial, and may work all that its advocates hope.) Where changes are less frequent, we find better

police; and, for purposes of comparison, I present the following figures:—

London, population in 1883, 3,955,814; force, 10,369, being one officer to 307 of population; arrests, 81,065, one arrest to every 48 persons, and showing an increase of 1,143 over 1882.

New York, population in 1883, 1,500,000; force, 2,870, one officer to 502 of population; arrests, 70,701, one arrest to every 21 of population, and showing 3,834 less arrests than in 1882.

Brooklyn, population in 1883, 617,517; force, 661, being one officer to 919 of population; arrests, 26,819, one to every 23 of population, and showing 791 less arrests than in 1882.

St. Louis, population in 1884, 400,000; force, 483, one officer to 710 of population; arrests, 19,208, one arrest to every 20 of population, and showing an increase of 896 over the report of 1882.

Mainly owing to the apprehensions occasioned by the dynamiters, London shows an increase of arrests over previous years. Still, the fact is apparent that there are fifty per cent. less arrests in proportion to population in Europe than on this side of the Atlantic.

There should be at least one police officer to every 300 of population. Senior says, "It is wonderful how small a number of persons can provide for the security of multitudes." But the community is generally indifferent about government, unless awakened by threatening calamity. There may be a fear that to increase the police would be to promote an aristocracy. I quote from an author upon this point: "But their interest is identified and confounded with that of the majority of their fellow-citizens. They may frequently be faithless and frequently mistaken; but they will never systematically adopt a line of conduct hostile to the majority, and they cannot give a dangerous or exclusive tendency to the government." It was said by Fielding, who, I claim, was the father of the police system, that his efforts were not properly upheld, and that society was so constituted, perhaps indifferent in giving the necessary countenance to the good work of their officers, that, in forty years after, crime was so rampant that measures were taken to increase the police service.

The police should at all times receive proper recognition and encouragement. This Conference can do much toward creating a sentiment in the community against existing evils, which the police have no power to correct. Among these evils, I would name one, the improvement in the dwellings of the poor. I believe I do not under-rate this subject in placing before you the testimony of those who have given this matter their best thoughts. One of the authorities, in

speaking of the cause of crime, states: "The idea that mankind is saved by preaching merely to them appears to be waning in America; and the conviction is growing that criminals are made by bad social institutions, which ought to be suppressed,—scanty food, poverty, dwellings like stables; and underpaid wages to girls employed in factories and stores is a cause of prostitution. Hard to find work for man, harder for women!"

In an investigation as to tenement houses in Edinburgh, it was reported that each house of eight rooms contains, on an average, forty-five persons. Nine persons slept in one room twelve by fourteen,—a father, mother, and seven children. Is it to be wondered at that all sense of delicacy and shame is put to the blush, where in these apartments, or rooms, both sexes in the family sleep and dress together? The innocent children suffer the most in this stifling atmosphere; and Dr. Fraser, one of the examiners, says that here there is no chance for the proper development of either the intellect or the morals. Within a few years, health boards have devoted some attention to the improvements of dwellings of the poor. In Edinburgh, where the tumble-down rookeries were removed and better houses substituted, there has been a marked decrease in crime as well as in the death-rate.

In the Report of the Brooklyn Board of Health for 1875-76 there is a report upon the improved tenement houses erected on the block bounded by Hicks, Baltic, Warren, and Henry Streets. In these houses, strict sanitary regulations were observed: no room is without light and air. The owner, Mr. Alfred White, claims it to be no philanthropy, but says that, after several years' trial, his money has been much better and more safely invested than it would have been in other directions. In these tenements, covering one square block, there are 85 families, consisting of 1,068 persons, being an average of 4 persons to each family; and, during the years these buildings have existed, no case of crime has been called to the attention of the authorities, nor any trouble been given to the police by the occupants. Care is exercised by the agent that no improper person obtains a habitation here; and then due care is exercised in keeping them respectable, and preventing them from becoming criminal breeding places.

Macaulay wisely said, "From sentimental legislation, good Lord, deliver us!" A few years ago, some of the ministers in our city engaged in temperance work insisted upon the strict enforcement of an old law which had become a dead-letter. The statute provided

that every licensed liquor place should keep a register, at least three beds, besides cooking utensils, and a place for the care of horses. A sort of a man-and-beast provision was all that was required to constitute an inn or hotel for the 3,000 liquor-places in the city. The commissioners were forced to accede to the pressing demands of these clergymen; and what was the result? Where the police had exercised proper surveillance over the characters frequenting the saloons, they now found it next to impossible to do so effectually, and an increase of street-walkers was the result. Previously, this phase, prostitution, was almost, if not entirely, unknown to our inhabitants. During the first year of the enforcement of this register and three-bed provision, eight girls, whose ages ranged from sixteen to twenty, were arrested for street-walking in one minor precinct alone.

The law against selling liquor to minors has been pressed with zeal, and good results have followed. As the future destiny of a child depends largely upon the example of the mother, would it not be a wise provision to have a general law against selling of liquor to females? A law has been in existence for many years in the State of New York prohibiting the sale of liquor by the glass and in small quantities in grocery stores. This was passed with the view to stay the ravages of intemperance among women. The literature of children, especially of the Jesse James type, should be suppressed by legislation. The play-house should also be looked after. There is a law prohibiting children from attendance at places of entertainment, unless in company with parents or guardians. Still, this has in only a few instances been enforced. If performances are amusing and do no harm, then all right. If, on the other hand, they tend to poison the minds of our youth, then they should be suppressed. The necessity for perfect moral statistics has been felt; and Prof. Woolsey, in a paper read before the Social Science Convention in 1881, pointed out this fact. In various reports, too, of the New York Prison Association, the same necessity is referred to. Police and criminal statistics constitute one branch of social statistics, which comprises all data bearing upon man's relations to society.

The value of these statistics in aiding the economist, philanthropist, and student of social science in determining to what extent the efforts of government in promoting and securing the well-being of society are successful cannot be overestimated. In the police reports, special attention is given to these figures, which show the operation of certain laws. In the United States, commercial and vital statistics have heretofore been compiled and published under the direction of

the general government, when the decennial census is taken. A step, for the first time, in the direction of presenting to the people some facts relating to crime, is contained in the tenth census, and was compiled by Rev. Fred. Wines, from whom we learn that there were 59,255 prisoners in the United States in 1880, who were confined in the various prisons, jails, and lock-ups.

Where the State provides a police for our cities, the management makes its reports to the governor, mayor, or common council, either yearly or quarterly, as provided by the statute or ordinance. In the city of New York, the commissions report quarterly to the mayor. The charter of Brooklyn requires a report once annually, when requested by the mayor; but in no city is there a law compelling the reporting by the police of criminal statistics. Though there may be no law bearing upon this subject, still there is scarcely a city which does not annually make valuable contributions to the data to which social science looks for its arguments. The duty of compiling records of crime devolves upon the sheriffs and county clerks, who are required to transmit to the secretary of state schedule reports. The thirty-second annual report of the Prison Association of New York states, "It is a perfunctory service, in which no attempt at accuracy is thought of." And again, in the same report, "The existing basis for the criminal statistics of New York is too untrustworthy to be continued." A national bureau may meet the needed reform, or else a department might be added to the census office, to which each State should send reports. But the information should be carefully and honestly collected by and under the direction of honest and conscientious men, in order to be of any value to the public, but so collected that it might be acted upon by wise legislation. The statistics of crime should exhibit the number of offences under cognizance of the law; the number of offences which, owing to any cause, have not been followed by prosecution; the number of persons prosecuted and committed to prisons, by sex and age; and, if such could be made authentic, statements should be added of the origin, domicile, condition, profession, and education of those arrested. If a city or county could be divided into statistical districts in accordance with distinction of population, and the comparisons of those of each class committed reduced to a percentage based upon the numerical strength of each, then many erroneous impressions which now exist would be removed.

Inquiries were instituted by M. Gisquit and incorporated in the *Sommier's Judiciaires*, in which hundreds of persons were employed in

compiling a most remarkable record of the private history of the most illustrious as well as the most degraded names of Frenchmen. That is not what is wanted. Homogeneity in the criminal laws of the several States is a necessity.

It is to be hoped that future legislators, when originating new laws or perfecting old ones, will not fail to consult those who, from years of experience, have become qualified to offer suggestions which, being adopted, will conduce to the great end we all have in view,—the lessening of crime and the consequent result, a feeling of security throughout the body politic.

POLICE MATRONS.

BY MRS. J. B. HOBBS,

SUPERINTENDENT OF MATRONS IN POLICE STATIONS, CHICAGO.

It is a new departure in philanthropic work to place matrons in police stations ; but so far as our experience in Chicago, where we have three at present,* is concerned, it is considered a great success. In one police station in Chicago there were over four thousand arrests of women within the last year. Many of them come back over and over again. There is one woman who has been arrested so many times that her needlework is laid aside for her until she is rearrested. For such as these there should be a long sentence. Many girls from all over the country are inveigled into coming to the city, that they may earn money to get better clothes. Some of these are beguiled into houses of ill-repute, and finally they are arrested and brought to the police stations ; and then, through the influence of the matrons, they are sent back to their homes. These girls will not confide in police officers, but they will go to the motherly, kind-hearted woman ; and so many a one has gone back to her home through the influence of these matrons. The cry comes from every woman employed in the police stations that mothers should teach their girls to work. This shows the necessity of industrial schools, kindergartens, and kitchen gardens. Too often, when the girls are asked whether they will go to work, the reply is, " I don't know anything well enough to earn my living by." Out of 2,187 arrests in one of our stations, 749 had some sort of occupation, 1,438 had none. This tells the story. Since March 9, 1884, there have been 6,744 arrests in these three police stations. Last year there were 8,000 arrests of women alone in Chicago. The mayor defers the selections of police matrons

to the Woman's Christian Temperance Union and the Prisoners' Aid Association, and appoints upon their recommendation. They are paid from the city treasury.

I would urge the members of this Conference to give this subject their careful consideration, to use their influence to secure the appointment of women as matrons and superintendents, not only in police stations, but in hospitals and the various asylums and reformatories where women and children are admitted. I would also recommend that they be selected by women from charitable organizations who know well the needed qualifications.

X.

Poorhouses.

THE LOCATION, CONSTRUCTION, AND MANAGEMENT OF POORHOUSES.*

BY HON. H. W. GILES.

Pauperism burdens society in all parts of the land. In isolated localities where alcoholic beverages are excluded, it bears most lightly. How to minimize pauperism is an important problem. The organization and management of poorhouses enter into its solution to a greater extent than at first appears to the superficial observer, since great care must be exercised so as not to encourage the growth of the dependent classes. While it is proper to encourage a sentiment of benevolence, mere sentiment might increase the burdens of society. While to supply the needy and administer to human comfort in general is the dictate of humanity, to tolerate unthrift and encourage idleness is a great wrong done to society. We shall aim to keep these principles in view in the discussion of this subject.

A poor-farm should be located near the principal town of the county or at a place easily accessible. It should not be near a town, as it might become the resort of idle loafers; and the paupers will be more liable to leave the farm to loaf in town. From one and one-half to three miles we should advise as the proper distance.

A variety of soil, and adapted to grain and grass, is desirable for the farm. A good orchard is also an object; and, if not purchased, the fruit-trees should be planted at once. As a rule, farm buildings are of little value for the purpose of a poorhouse; and it is generally a waste of money to pay for them.

We would emphasize our advice not to go far from town or from a railway station. Too often false economy, leading to waste, begins in going to some out-of-the-way place because land is cheap, and per-

*The above paper was prepared by Mr. Giles as chairman of the Standing Committee on the Organization and Management of Poorhouses. It was also signed by W. J. Baxter, of Michigan.

haps cheap because poor. Such a location increases the expense of visitation and of getting supplies to it. Then, what is quite as important, it is away from under the public eye. An important point in the location of all public institutions is to place them where the prying eyes of the people will be upon and into them.

The size of the farm will depend upon the number to be cared for. It should be large enough to grow all the vegetables to supply the household, with pasturage and meadow to furnish feed for a number of cows equal to the wants of the population to be supplied with milk and butter, with grain land to grow grain for hogs and stock, and in addition a tract of woodland to grow fuel would be a profitable investment. It is not profitable to grow farm produce for the general market, if doing it involves the expense of hired help. As a rule, we are of the opinion that the care of a vegetable garden, and of the stock and swine, is quite as much as the average population of our poorhouses is capable of.

The buildings should be constructed with special reference to their use as a poorhouse. The special points in a good poorhouse are complete separation of the sexes, plenty of water with bath-rooms and bath-tubs, warmth and ventilation. The separation of the sexes can best be secured in a building consisting of a centre or overseer's residence and wings upon each side. In the rear of the residence should be the common dining-room, or two dining-rooms, and still farther in the rear the kitchen. This plan is recommended where the pauper population does not exceed fifty: where it exceeds that number, it might be well to erect separate cottages for the paupers.

The buildings should not be over two stories in height. As a rule, paupers are old people and feeble in body; and a third story is of little use. The chimneys should start from the basement, and be solidly constructed, with the flues well plastered. Brick or brick veneered buildings are recommended in preference to wood.

The ventilation should be automatic, and out of the control of the paupers, as they will, as a rule, shut themselves in and every breath of pure air out. An elevated and dry site should be selected, so as to secure good drainage and sewerage: if near a stream of running water, so much the better. The dwelling should be surrounded with shade-trees, but not near enough to interfere with the circulation of the air and the admission of the sun's health-giving rays.

Substantial structures should be erected, and plainness should be studied by spending no money in architectural embellishment. The partitions should be brick, and should extend from basement to attic.

This will lessen the danger from fire as well as render the buildings more substantial. The floors should be deadened with mortar, as an additional precaution against fire as well as to shut off noise. In our opinion, poorhouses, as well as all other public buildings, should be at least partially fire-proof. The increase of expense to do this would not be felt, and the saving in insurance would in time pay the additional cost.

The basement should be divided into separate apartments, to correspond with the rooms above, to be used for the storage of supplies, for furnace, fuel, and laundry, if desired. No vegetables should be stored in basement rooms, at least under living rooms or dormitories. The bottom should be cemented all through, and the ceilings lathed and plastered. The dryest and best ventilated place should be taken for a milk-room, and used for no other purpose.

In addition to closets, each dormitory for one or two lodgers should have corner cupboards, to give each pauper a place for his or her personal clothing and effects. This will obviate the necessity of driving nails and spikes into the ceilings upon which to hang their clothing when not in use.

Light bedsteads with wire mattresses should be used, the better to keep out vermin. To provide accommodation for the greatest number and to better utilize the space, the central corridors in the wings may be made wide enough for day rooms for paupers, lighted by a bay window in the outer end and a recess on the sunny side extending to the outside with a bay window.

One room in each wing should be reserved for a sick-room or hospital.

All the halls, the kitchen, dining-room, and other parts much used should have hardwood floors, as a matter of economy as well as cleanliness. If the use of tobacco is allowed, a room should be set apart for smoking, and its location should be such that the odor of the smoke will not pervade the whole house. A tight board fence should reach back from the poorhouse some distance, making separate yards for the sexes, with separate privies for each, upon the plan of our best school-houses.

Allow no intercourse between the sexes, except at the common table for paupers.

In visiting one of our county poorhouses fourteen years ago, we called the attention of the matron to the lack of all facilities for keeping the sexes separate.

Her reply was, "Oh, there is no danger: we are very watchful."

At our next visit, one year after, almost the first remark of the "watchful" matron was, "We have got caught: you gentlemen knew more about it than we did."

This separation should be carried to the extent of separating husband and wife (except possibly in the case of old people), should they become inmates of the poorhouse.

No children of sound mind and body should be retained in a poorhouse. Unthinking officials often do retain them, because it is cheaper to do so than to find a home outside or pay for their support elsewhere. In some States,—New York, Michigan, and Wisconsin, for instance,—the law declares against the practice. To keep all children out of the poorhouse is an important step in diminishing pauperism.

No insane or idiotic person should be kept in a poorhouse. If absolutely necessary so to keep them, let them have separate rooms and grounds for exercise and work. To allow them to associate with the paupers causes constant friction and annoyance.

No able-bodied and sound-minded man or woman should find a home in the poorhouse. All such should be made to work and earn their own livelihood outside.

The selection of an overseer is the most important matter connected with the management of a poorhouse. A first-class business man is absolutely required. No place-hunter or political bankrupt is wanted. If payment for services rendered the party is desired, better grant a pension; for the tax-payers can better afford it.

The best guide is to have a man who has successfully managed his own affairs, and give him a fair salary for the entire services of himself and family. Sometimes, a cheap man is hired, and the saving of two or three hundred dollars salary is followed by a loss, through his shiftlessness, of twice or thrice the sum; and the same niggardly parsimony is carried into the whole management until the institution becomes a stench and a nuisance. Having found a man who is all right, before a bargain is closed the proper officers or committee should visit his house and look upon his wife. If she "stretcheth out her hand to the poor," if "she openeth her mouth with wisdom, and in her tongue is the law of kindness," if "she looketh well to the ways of her household, and eateth not the bread of idleness," if "her children rise up and call her blessed, her husband also, and he praiseth her," then let the bargain be closed with a fair salary for the services required.

The overseer should not be allowed any pecuniary interest in the board or labor of the paupers or from the produce of the farm or from any source connected with the running of the poorhouse.

A most pernicious practice prevails in some localities of letting the keeping of paupers by contract at so much per day or week or month, and giving the contractor the use and products of the farm. Most decidedly, earnestly, and emphatically do we protest against this system of poor support. In all cases under it, the contractor aims to make money; and, as county boards are close and drive sharp bargains, the profits of the keeper are made at the expense of the poor paupers he agrees to care for. He may be a good man, as the world goes, and start in with the best intentions to be kind and humane and considerate of the welfare of those under his charge; but such is human nature that in time avarice gets the better of what philanthropy he did possess, and the poor dependents suffer. The contract system of poor support is a premium on neglect.

To have a well-conducted poorhouse, the public must take an interest in its management. It must receive frequent visits of inspection, and reports of its condition must be published. A committee of ladies of the place near which it is located should make at least monthly visits, and as much oftener as deemed necessary. In counties where there is a charity organization, it should provide especially for frequent visits to the poorhouse.

Every person that has to do with public institutions realizes how difficult it is to bring county poorhouses up to a creditable standard of neatness, cleanliness, and orderly management. Permanent improvements and even ordinary and necessary repairs are neglected, and the numberless things that go to make a home pleasant are left undone. It costs something to do these things, and officials are ambitious to establish a character for economy and withhold the necessary appropriations to meet the expense. It will be conceded that it is not always safe to trust the care of the dependent class to the average county board, and expect liberal treatment without some kind of supervision.

There should be in every State a rigid inspection of poorhouses. Where State boards of charity exist, the duty of inspection will be done by them. To reform a badly managed poorhouse is almost a hopeless task; and, when run under the contract system at a saving of a few hundred dollars to the county, nothing short of a moral earthquake will arouse the people to measures of reform. The experience of all who have had to do with official visits to county poorhouses will justify these remarks.

There seems but one way to reach the evils that become connected with the county management of poorhouses, and that is to make it for

the interest of the people of the county to have good poorhouses and to have them well managed.

How can that be done? We answer, It can be done simply and yet effectively.

1. Provide for some kind of State supervision and inspection. In States having boards of charities, this has already been done.

2. Let the supervising authority provide simple yet strict rules for the management of poorhouses, covering the accommodations to be provided and having regard to cleanliness, dietary, etc.

3. Provide for the payment from the State treasury of the sum of fifty cents per capita per week to every county that provides suitable accommodations for the care of its paupers, and cares for them as the rules prescribe: such sum to be paid only on the certificate of the inspector or supervising authority that the rules governing the management of poorhouses have been complied with.

We believe that this plan could be operated successfully, and that it would work a reform in poorhouse management.

THE MANAGEMENT OF ALMSHOUSES IN NEW ENGLAND.

BY F. B. SANBORN,

INSPECTOR OF CHARITIES IN THE STATE OF MASSACHUSETTS.

The poorhouses of New England are generally called almshouses, and have been since their first establishment, more than two centuries ago; using the old English name which in England is now given to private charitable establishments, while what in New England is called an almshouse is in the mother country termed a workhouse. Like the English "workhouse," our "almshouses" were originally parish establishments, the New England town and parish having formerly been the same jurisdiction, although there may now be fifty parishes in a single large town like Boston. It is very seldom, however, that a New England town, or even a city, contains more than one almshouse. The city of Boston, at present, has four; but this is quite exceptional. In New Hampshire, the town almshouses, which were once numerous, have lately been superseded to a great extent by county almshouses, such as are common outside of New England. No other New England State, I believe, has yet adopted the county system; nor does it prevail exclusively in New Hampshire.

In Massachusetts there is a single State almshouse, with nearly a thousand inmates, and about 225 city and town almshouses, of all sizes, and containing from a single inmate to 500, as in one or two cities. A fair example of the better class of these town almshouses is one in a rural town, of which the following description has recently been given me by Dr. Nathan Allen, one of the Almshouse Visitors for the Board of Health, Lunacy, and Charity, who inspected it about two months ago:—

"The almshouse at B. has a large farm, estimated at over 400 acres. The land is good and valuable, a part of it occupied for a long time as a poor farm. The house was burnt some ten years ago, after which the present house was built. It is large and looks like a hotel, with fifty rooms, and might accommodate three times as many inmates as it has to-day, August 10,—14 paupers (the average number being seldom over 20), all American, and remarkable for great age and good health. The rooms are well ventilated and lighted, neat and cleanly, the men's and women's departments entirely separated; while each inmate is furnished with a room. Several of the women take good care of their rooms. I went through the house and into nearly all the rooms. The whole establishment is superior to many private houses. The superintendent, E. G., has had charge for five years. He is paid \$450. Mrs. G. is a superior woman and admirably adapted to the place. She knows everything about the house and also about every inmate. The food is superior in quality and amount. The inmates are: T. B., 97; L. W., 90; C. C., 83; L. B., 68; G. B., 63; F. T., 56; S. P., 56; M. R., 56; S. J., 44; L. H., 34; E. M., 20; M. B., 19; H. M., 3; G. E. M., one year. T. B. is the oldest man in the town, and retains his senses surprisingly. It is so with L. W. and C. C. Not an insane person is found among them."

The farm connected with this almshouse is exceptionally large, and perhaps there is no one of the 230 almshouses in the State which has so many acres of land connected with it. It is customary, however, to have a farm of a hundred acres attached to each town almshouse, the aggregate acreage of land thus used in Massachusetts being about 22,000; although in many cases there is but an acre or two. It seldom happens that these large farms can be cultivated by the labor of the pauper inmates, who are generally aged or infirm men, unless they are insane or epileptic. Only a small part of them is cultivated at all, the greater portion being woodland or pasturage; but the produce of the farm, in most cases, supplies the inmates with vegetables, milk, etc., and in some is sufficient to pay all the expenses of the almshouse. Frequently, the almshouse keeper also has charge

of the town roads, or does some labor in connection with them, or attends to some other department of the town service, such as the care of cemeteries or the distribution of supplies for out-door relief. In a few towns, the almshouse is used as the place for keeping the town records and transacting a large part of the town business, the "selectmen," or chief officers of the town, being in such cases "overseers of the poor." This latter title is the name given to the chief officers who direct the relief of the poor in all parts of New England, corresponding to the term "guardians" in England and "supervisors" in some of the United States. Occasionally, though not often, one of these overseers of the poor is actually the keeper of the almshouse; but this officer is generally appointed from a class of persons who devote themselves to the occupation of almshouse keeping, and who therefore remove from town to town as their occupation ceases in one place and begins in another. Some of these keepers remain in one position for twenty years; but this is rare, the only instance which occurs to me being the keeper of the almshouse in Plymouth, the oldest town in Massachusetts. The average length of service in the towns visited this year is about four years, and the average salary of the keeper is \$387. This is a sum too small to secure the best service, and in less than half the Massachusetts almshouses is the management up to the standard which would be maintained in a State establishment for the same class. On the other hand, there are few instances of gross neglect or abuse on the part of the almshouse keepers; while there are many more instances of such careful management as is indicated in the almshouse above described. From my slight acquaintance with the almshouses of the other New England States, I have no reason to doubt that the standard of management is highest in Massachusetts; although there are many well-kept almshouses in Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Connecticut, and Rhode Island. The whole number of these establishments now in use in the six New England States is believed to be about 600, for it is impossible to state this exactly. It therefore seems that Massachusetts, with a population nearly half that of all New England, has but a little more than a third part of the almshouses: whence it follows that the average number of inmates must be considerably greater in a Massachusetts almshouse than in the almshouses of other States.

During the year ending April 1, 1884, the whole number of inmates in the 230 city and town almshouses of Massachusetts was a little more than 7,000; while the average number was less than two-thirds

as many,—namely, 3,920. This would give an average number in each almshouse of 17 persons. Of the whole average number (3,920), less than 620 were insane; although among the whole number of different persons during the year (7,000) there may have been 700 insane persons, or one-tenth of the whole almshouse population. During the same year, the number of insane persons in the hospitals and asylums of Massachusetts was nearly 5,000; so that not more than a seventh part of the insane persons under public supervision in Massachusetts have been in the smaller almshouses during the past year. If to these were added the insane population of the Tewksbury asylum (connected with the State Almshouse, but under medical management), the number of insane persons even nominally in almshouses would be less than a fourth part of the whole number under public supervision. This is much less than the usual proportion. In the State of New Hampshire, for instance, there were in 1883 354 insane persons in the ten county almshouses; while the State Asylum at Concord contained only 300 insane persons at that time. As there were undoubtedly some insane persons in the still existing town almshouses of New Hampshire, it would appear that more than half the New Hampshire insane are in almshouses, probably three-fifths. In Vermont, the proportion must be nearly as great. In Connecticut, it is much less, because the rapid enlargement of the State Asylum at Middletown has withdrawn many of the insane from the town poorhouses, so that the number now remaining in the 101 poorhouses of Connecticut does not probably exceed 150, while the number in insane asylums was upwards of 1,100 during the year 1883. In Rhode Island, the proportion of the insane in town almshouses seems to be even less than in Connecticut; but the statistics are not at hand. Taking New England as a whole, it is safe to say that less than a fifth part of all the insane under public supervision are in the almshouses (estimated at 600) in the six States.

The county almshouses of New Hampshire, which have grown up within the last twenty years, were never reported upon as a whole by the State authorities until 1883, when a special commission on the condition of the insane published a valuable report. This showed that the ten almshouse farms contained about 4,000 acres of land, ranging in size from the Grafton County almshouse with 650 acres to the Cheshire almshouse with 230 acres. The ten county almshouses contained during the year a population something less than 2,000, and an average population of about 1,030, rising in the winter to about 1,250. The average weekly cost for all the inmates was about \$1.50,

which is about 35 cents less than the average weekly cost at the single State Almshouse of Massachusetts, containing in 1883 an average population of 1,000, or nearly as many as in all the county almshouses of New Hampshire. Between a third and a half of these almshouse inmates in New Hampshire were insane or idiotic, and something more than a third part might properly be called insane. The State Commission, from whose report these facts are drawn, report strongly against retaining so many of the insane in these almshouses, and say that nearly a fourth part of them were confined in strong rooms in February, 1883. The general management of these New Hampshire almshouses, however, judging by the two largest, which I have visited, and from the statements made to me by a member of the State Commission, is kindly and frugal, without being specially censurable, except that the insane ought to be under better medical supervision and to have more and better attendance. This is the general criticism to be made on the treatment of the insane in almshouses, even when they are under a State supervision as vigilant and enlightened as that in Wisconsin appears to be.

The State Almshouse of Massachusetts at Tewksbury, which was last year the subject of so much criticism, was at that time in better condition than any large almshouse which I have ever visited, and is now slightly improved. About ten years ago there were serious neglects and some abuses in this almshouse, chiefly in the care of the insane; but these had been corrected for years. The almshouse and insane asylum at Tewksbury are now under medical management. This change, which had been long contemplated, secures the better care and greater skill that generally accompany the management of the insane by a resident physician, so that it is now safe to say that the Tewksbury almshouse is in better condition than any such establishment in New England. In consequence of the burning of the Bridgewater State Workhouse in 1883, the Tewksbury almshouse has had a larger population in the year which ended October 1 than ever before, the whole number of different persons residing there for longer or shorter periods during the year having been nearly 3,800. The average number was almost exactly 1,000, the net cost about \$93,500, and the average weekly cost, therefore, \$1.80. This weekly cost, though larger than in the county almshouses of New Hampshire, is considerably less than the average cost in the 230 city and town almshouses of Massachusetts, which was nearly \$2.50 a week during the same year. Some of these small almshouses, and occasionally a large one, show an average cost of \$4 or \$5 a week,—generally, in

consequence of a small number of inmates in an almshouse calculated for a much larger population.

The almshouse buildings in New England, having been occupied in most cases for forty or fifty years, and sometimes for eighty or one hundred years, are not at present well adapted to modern ideas of comfort and convenience. New almshouses are now built in Massachusetts at the rate of about five in a year, including such extensive rebuilding and enlargement as gives the town practically a new almshouse. Generally speaking, these new structures are well adapted for the comfort and separation of the inmates; and some of them are very costly. The town of Lancaster, not far from Worcester, with a population of 2,100, has built within the last year an almshouse of brick and stone, with new farm buildings, and capable of receiving some 50 inmates, at a cost, including furniture, of nearly \$30,000; yet the present number of inmates is less than 10, so that the average construction cost for each inmate of the present number is about \$3,000. This, however, is more than twice as costly as any other new almshouse known to me. The State is building, and has nearly completed, an almshouse department at the State Workhouse in Bridgewater, at a cost, including furniture, water supply, heating apparatus, etc., of about \$90,000 for 300 inmates, or an average of \$300 construction cost for each inmate. These buildings are entirely of brick and stone, as near fire-proof as any such structures can be, and very well adapted to the care of the almshouse population on the dormitory plan; that is, in a large common room, both for dormitory and hospital purposes, and with very few single rooms. At the Lancaster almshouse, just mentioned, there are single rooms for the inmates; and this, of course, is a more costly style of building. Generally speaking, the Massachusetts almshouses, except that at Tewksbury and those in a few of our cities, are not crowded with inmates even in winter, when their population is about thirty per cent. greater than in midsummer. Many of the rural almshouses have room for twice their present number of inmates; and, in half our towns at least, the almshouse population is not increasing from year to year. In most of our twenty Massachusetts cities, it increases considerably.

The number of children in the Massachusetts almshouses is less than that of the insane; and in half of them at least there are no children at all, except the feeble-minded. The Connecticut almshouses have lately been relieved of many children by the establishment of county homes under a new law passed in 1883-84. The

secretary of the Connecticut Board of Charities writes me as follows concerning them :—

"The County Temporary Homes are in operation in all the counties under the enclosed law, and draw a great many children from poorhouses, and prevent a great many from going to them. You will find an account of them up to January 1, last, pages 56 to 72 of the report. Since that time, they have made good progress. There is a home in each county,—eight in all,—and from 175 to 200 children have been in up to date, October 7 ; and not far from half of that number have been provided with suitable family homes."

No movement so extensive as this to provide separate homes away from the almshouse for poor children is going on elsewhere in New England ; but, in Massachusetts, we have for some years been placing such children in families with very good results. And our cities, which contain nearly half our almshouse population, are forbidden by law to retain children above certain ages in the almshouse. This law is not completely enforced as yet, but takes effect more and more each year. There is, in other respects, a very perceptible improvement in the management of the Massachusetts almshouses since I first began to visit them, twenty years ago. What is now much needed is the union of several towns in the support of a single almshouse, so that the number of inmates may be large enough to warrant the employment of a better class of officers than we now find in many of the smaller almshouses, and an increase of the salary, until the average, instead of less than \$400, as now, should be \$500 or \$600. This amount would secure in Massachusetts the services of very competent men and women, such as are now employed at this rate in our better almshouses. The State laws permit such unions among towns ; and these would be better in our State than county almshouses, could such be established. But, with our laws and customs, county almshouses could scarcely exist in Massachusetts.

XI.

Closing Session.

ADDRESSES AND RESPONSES

AT A RECEPTION TENDERED TO THE CONFERENCE BY THE CITIZENS
OF ST. LOUIS.

ADDRESS OF HENRY HITCHCOCK, ESQ.,

OF ST. LOUIS.

Ladies and Gentlemen,—It is my pleasant duty to express to you the gratification with which the citizens of St. Louis have observed the proceedings of this Conference, and on the eve of your departure to say a cordial word of farewell.

Speaking, as I do, for those who have been spectators only, it may not be unwelcome to you to know something of the impression which this Conference has made upon them, considered as an event in itself.

The simple fact that this meeting is held is an important and instructive one. No such body as this can come together and confer upon topics of charitable work so various and so important, or exchange the experiences and conclusions of its members, without producing results of great value. Throughout this country and throughout the civilized world there are individual workers interested in these matters; and few of them have had or can have the opportunity to compare notes and receive new thoughts and suggestions, and it may be to correct their own errors, which such a conference affords.

Such an assemblage as this, quite aside from the specific plans of charitable work which it may discuss, has a definite significance. In the first place, it means organization; and organization means power. It is organization, as we all know, which makes the difference between a mob and an army.

Again, such an assemblage means inspiration and renewed enthusiasm. Every solitary and sometimes discouraged worker gains new

strength from such a conference, as the soldier in line of battle stands firmer for "the touch of the elbow."

Again, the publicity which results from a conference like this is in itself a new source of power. As there are physical evils, one remedy for which is to let in upon them a flood of sunlight, so there are moral evils, which flourish and fester in the darkness, that cannot endure the light of publicity. "They love the darkness, because their deeds are evil," was said long ago by Him who knew the heart of man. The mere fact of public discussion creates an immense power for the correction of abuses. The general knowledge that such evils and abuses exist in a country like this, and the indignation which such knowledge awakens, is a long step toward their reformation.

Again, and as a consequence of this publicity, a conference like this helps to create that public opinion which, after all, must correct such evils as you have been considering. It is very necessary that official bodies, armed with statutory powers and charged with specific duties in this direction, should exist; but no statute, nor any organization created by statute, amounts to much, unless it is backed by a genuine public opinion which gives it vital force. This alone would justify and commend such a conference as you have held,—that it tends to educate public opinion, to bring to the knowledge of the whole community the existence of these evils which afflict society, and the existence also of remedies for them, and the necessity of enacting and enforcing laws to apply those remedies.

In all these directions, it seems to us, who have with earnest sympathy observed your work, that the holding of such a conference as this is a fact of great significance and value. The men and women who have assembled for such purposes command not only our sympathy, but our admiration, and also our best wishes that year by year these conferences may result in still wider and greater good.

ADDRESS OF GENERAL WILLIAM T. SHERMAN.

Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen,—I attended the first meeting which you held, in the hall on Locust Street, and heard the very clear, accurate, and admirable report of your President, and thought I caught some of the points of the Association, whose members have been this week sitting in Pickwick Hall. I agreed, therefore, to come this evening and say a few words here. I beg you to receive them in the spirit in which they are given, for I do not profess to be an expert in the subjects here discussed.

As I understand it, the ladies and gentlemen who make up this Conference are associated both for the purpose of charity, which is universal, blesses him who gives as well as him who receives, and for the purpose of discussing the best method of correction, which is, I suppose, in the nature of prevention, on the theory that it is better to prevent before the crime occurs than to punish after the event. I have watched the proceedings of this body, as reported in the newspapers; and I have noticed that, like doctors generally, you disagree pretty widely. But honest men can afford to disagree, dishonest men never. Disagreement is the evidence of your sincerity and your breadth, and demonstrates that your hearts are enlisted in this great, if not holy cause. There is a little infirmity in each one of our own natures; and, when we take a hundred or a thousand, there appears to be a pretty large percentage of something wrong. We were created so. There was crime in the Garden of Eden, there has been crime and disorder ever since, and I rather think will be until the day of judgment. Nevertheless, if you can diminish that amount of crime, and extend charity judiciously, by any system whatever, then certainly you, and those associated with you, will have accomplished a great good. You have gone to work about it aright: you have come together to confer about these things. Where you differ, you agree to differ; but, little by little, these differences will disappear, and the institutions of charity and correction will become harmonious, each acting in unison with the other, making the whole as successful as anything can be on earth.

Now, I have noticed, in commanding soldiers, that some of them are always in trouble. Take a company, for instance, and call it for convenience a body of a hundred men. In that number, three or four will likely be in the guard-house. Discharge these three or four, and another set takes their place. It seems as though the Almighty had decreed that there should be some bad men to serve as a warning. I know it is the case in the army. But in the company, in the regiment, in the brigade, and in the division, you have all the machinery, perfect in all its details, from the head to the foot, so that crime may be promptly punished and good rewarded, trusting to him who rules worthily for the result. It so happens that we live in a country that has many governments almost identical in form. Take the little township: it has a government of its own. The family is the foundation of all society. Then comes the township, then the county, then the State, then the United States. All of these organizations have their own charities, their own prisons and ways of pun-

ishments; and, when we get all together, the machinery is almost perfect. But, as I understand from your President, there still remains in this age, late in the nineteenth century, one man or woman requiring restraint to every 120 of the population,—I think those were the figures. Now that will give you, gentlemen,—for you can figure exactly what it would be in 54,000,000 of people,—employment enough for you and for your children after you. So you have certainty of employment throughout the rest of your earthly career. If you do the best you can, if you have done the best you can, as I believe you have, working with noble purpose of doing what your brains and your experience have told you is right, you will have done the task which God allotted to you. If successful, you are entitled to thanks; if unsuccessful, you have the same noble purpose to stimulate you on.

If you look through the world at large, you will find that only one in eight or nine earns an honest living: the rest get on without. But, if you put too much of the humanitarian principle into your efforts to care for them, the tax-payer will begin to growl; and you will feel the consequences. The world will bear only a certain amount of that; and, when you reach that limit, there is a reaction, and the strong will neglect the weak.

In punishment, my experience has been that it should be prompt, quick, determined. If you have to do with a murderer, give him a fair trial, and, if a good jury convict him, hang him, and your community is rid of that fellow, and you will have fewer murders afterward. Then we are getting too tender toward minor crimes. I see it in the army and I see it in civil life. There are offences for which a man should be taken up and whipped. I know that there is a feeling that it is debasing to whip a man; but, if he deserves it, he ought to get it. The question was once put to some of the old sailors at the English dock-yards, probably at Portsmouth, Are you in favor of the abolishment of flogging in Her Majesty's navy? And the old Jack tars replied, No, because then the lazy men would make the good men do their work. Now, I say that throughout the United States and in England—for they are the same country that we are, the same race—we have grown too tender in punishing crime. We have gone to an extreme. If you can get on without the switch, if you spare the rod and spoil the child, I will not interfere. Until we fill up the waste places, you can drive your offenders away; but, by and by, you cannot drive your criminals off. You cannot push them on to your neighbors: you will have to take care of them yourselves.

I hope that you have had a good time in St. Louis. You have certainly won our respect. Your being here has been good for the city and good for yourselves, because you have interchanged your thoughts far more in the hotels, on the streets, and in the hall than here on the stage. Men generally enact a part on the stage; but, when thrown with each other, they interchange thought, and the interchange of thought is always good. It develops you and the community to which you return. I hope that you will go back to your homes with pleasant feelings toward your associates and toward the people of St. Louis.

REMARKS OF HON. WILLIAM P. LETCHWORTH.

It is a matter of regret, that, in view of the near approach of the Sabbath,—only Saturday intervening,—many of our members have been compelled to leave, and so have failed to hear these friendly parting words.

We have been pleasantly received in all the various cities where our meetings, which have been growing in interest and becoming in every way more satisfactory, have from time to time been held; but it seems to me that in no previous Conference have we been the recipients of such studied attention and generous treatment as we have received from the citizens of St. Louis. As for myself, these attentions have touched my tenderest feelings and awakened a warm sense of gratefulness,—a gratefulness all the more deeply felt, because of the unostentatious, I may say delicate, manner in which these kindnesses have been bestowed, indicating throughout an observance of high-bred courtesy.

Were I a citizen of St. Louis, I should be proud of my city. The stranger beholds here the evidences of a genuine public spirit and the grand results of bold and successful enterprise. The many noble institutions, including those of learning, art, science, and charity, unmistakably denote the force, energy, intelligence, and benevolence of its people, which have been felt even in this Conference. To a citizen of St. Louis, its prosperity must afford great satisfaction in the reflection that it is largely due to the justly acquired reputation for fair dealing characteristic of its business men. That this prosperity may increase and this reputation continue through future years is my earnest wish. I do not think that such poor words as I may command can justly express all that should be said out of reciprocal feeling at the termination of this brief yet enjoyable and profitable intercourse; and I will call upon those

more gifted to make suitable acknowledgment, through the local committee, to the citizens of St. Louis for the generous favors we have received at their hands.

ADDRESS OF HON. CHARLES ANDERSON.

I doubt if there was ever a man who did not *feel* more than he could find words to express. I have often lamented in myself a too facile fluency; but often I have been utterly unable to indicate, much less express, what I have felt. Never, perhaps, have I had this feeling more than now and here.

As I came to St. Louis the other night, some delay occurred upon the bridge; and it took me back years in thought. All the changes that have occurred since first I crossed that river came thronging thick upon me, till I was absolutely oppressed. Let this be my text: *St. Louis as it was fifty-one years ago!*

As I stand here at the end of half a century, I can but remember all that has taken place here and in the world outside. Then, the steamboat was a very lame and inefficient instrument of commerce. Compare the old "Banner" — one of the best Louisville boats — and its two hundred tons with your monarch vessels. Look at their power and beauty! Why, the Czar of Russia or the Queen of England never, in all their days, saw such a saloon as that of the "Robert E. Lee" or "Ruth." As for the railroad, it was but a nascent thought, an embryonic seed in the mind of the great man who invented the locomotive. Then there had been no such thing on earth as a railroad. Look at the contrast now, in this western valley of ours! Then there was not a telegraph line on the globe. Years after that time, in 1845, I was at Nimes, trying to listen to my first nightingale, when I heard something creaking over my head, and saw a faint gleam on a rude martello tower, upon which were some things like a couple of window shutters playing criss-cross at various angles. What can that mean? I asked myself. And, when I reached the hotel, they told me it was a "telegraph," telling the progress of a battle in Algiers. Now, what do we see? Puck's joke about putting a girdle round the world is far outdone. We can do it in a tenth of the time he said. What amazing changes in fifty years! You whisper a word of love, of business, of sorrow, of regret, at New York, and in Chicago they positively recognize your voice! This is not all. I came here in November, 1833, the year and the week when the great shower of stars fell. Science knew little about that then. What a change, what wonderful progress, has science made by the spectro-

scope since then! Again, Daguerre had not thought at that time of making the sun, though ninety-five millions of miles away, paint his pictures for him. Then, a man could not have the aid of the electric light to have his image handed down to posterity far more accurate and more picturesque than Raphael or Michael Angelo or Titian ever dreamed of. Now, they can picture the spokes of a wheel when "Maud S." is trotting against time, so that they shall appear absolutely fast and stationary, from the hub to the felloe.

When I came to St. Louis, it had less than seven thousand people, the majority Frenchmen. But there were others who did not live with these *habitans*, nor drive in those carts that passed between the country and this village. They were called "Vide-Poche" carts. They were entirely innocent of any kind of metal, from the wheel to the bit in the horse's mouth. They danced along with amazing rapidity; and, on one occasion, one of them brought the news of the up-coming of the first steamer — *a day ahead!*

What do we see *now* in St. Louis? I have seen expositions in Paris and London, in Louisville and Cincinnati, and thought I had seen some fair specimens; but I had never seen the St. Louis Exposition. I have seen illuminations at Versailles and other places in Europe and America, and I thought I knew what an illumination meant. I was mistaken. I had not seen that of night before last. I have not the least idea that the world has ever before seen such an illumination as you honored us by inviting us to see on Wednesday night.

There is one other "evolution" that I wish to specify. About the time that I first came to St. Louis — perhaps a little earlier — there was a little, red-headed boy in the Hocking valley of Ohio, in his first ducks, playing marbles or running his freckled hands into the round holes of the tall trees after young woodpeckers.

Years flew by. He received an appointment at West Point. He was graduated; and again the years flew by, bringing him close to me, closer than he knows. He became a subaltern in a dear brother's company. Still other years flew by. Let us not dilate upon those years, those dreadful, horrid years! Would that I could absolutely lose all memory of those terrible years, from 1859 to 1864! But I cannot, and must not, and should not. But, early in those years, I met that brother in New York, I think in January, 1862; and as we were walking in Madison Square, one Sunday morning, he suddenly remarked, "But, Charles, the great man to come out of this war is Sherman." Well knowing the modesty, simplicity, and excellent sense of that young officer in my brother's company, and also know-

ing his admiration for Sherman of Rhode Island, especially for the management of his guns at Buena Vista, I said, "*What Sherman?*" "Why," he replied, "my first lieutenant, William Tecumseh Sherman." What he then prophesied appeared with time. There came a crisis in our war affairs. Our armies were in the Mississippi valley. Who conceived the thought of crossing the Cumberland Mountains and marching to the sea? William T. Sherman. And results followed which you all know and feel, and which posterity shall feel to the last syllable of recorded time. This, then, is the evolution which presents itself as a conclusion of all these wonderful events that are now passing before my memory. Above them all, I put that freckle-faced, red-haired boy of Lancaster, Ohio, playing "knucks" with marbles.

And so I take my leave of this association in the spirit of honest praise for honest deserts. We are gathered here from all parts of the United States, and from the different charity organizations scattered over the Union. Our interests are wide as the continent. They know no north, no south, no east, no west: ay, more, they embrace mankind, wherever mankind may be. And this Conference, when it shall awaken to its wonderful power, which is akin to the powers of nature, will be known and felt throughout the land. As the dewdrop exhaled from the spring, the river, the ocean, or—even lower still—the dirty wayside puddle, is taken up by the sun, drawn up into the air, and gathered by the breezes on the mountain peaks, and goes again, by ceaseless circulations, into the fountain and the stream and the upland lake; and as there is not a blade of grass upon the shore, nor an overhanging willow with its hoar leaves, that does not find its pure image as clear and as distinct in this lake as in the air above; more than that, as there is not a cloud in the serene blue or a star in the heavens of night-time that does not see itself mirrored there, the glory of the skies brought down and imaged on the earth,—so it may be with this, our Conference. If there be a body of men on earth gathered for holy desires and honest purposes, to do good to mankind, to draw down these heavenly images from the skies above, to be reflected in humanity below in perpetual rounds of benevolence and beneficence, it is this very association.

Thanking General Sherman for his words and you all for your attention, I now bid you all good-by.

REMARKS OF WILLIAM HOWARD NEFF, ESQ.

Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen,—I regret that the President did not call upon some one who could more ably respond to the

sentiments expressed by General Sherman. He could have called upon no one who appreciates them more highly or reciprocates them more heartily.

The object of the National Conference of Charities and Correction is to obtain and to diffuse information respecting benevolent, charitable, penal, and reformatory work. In the States where State boards of charities have been organized, the information is collected mainly by the secretaries, who are constantly at work, travelling through all parts of the State, visiting all the State and county institutions; and by the members of the board, divided into convenient committees, and meeting regularly, to confer together and with the governor of the State, who is usually president of the board. To discover abuses, in many cases, is to correct them. In other cases, where the best course of procedure is in doubt, the members of the State Board visit other States and other institutions, and especially attend these national conferences, where papers on the different topics are presented by distinguished men, supposed to be the best informed in the country on the subjects discussed. Practical men, also, attend them in large numbers, who have devoted years, or perhaps a lifetime, to the study of a specialty. They are questioned, sometimes closely; and the information they have is thus diffused and put into practice. The best methods are discovered. The mistakes, sometimes very costly, of the older States may thus be avoided by the new; and every advantage is given to those desirous of improving existing institutions or founding new ones. When it is remembered that the work of these national conferences embraces the care and cure of the insane, the saving and the protection and reformation of children and youth, the whole subject of prison management and reform, the education and care of the blind, the deaf and dumb, and the feeble-minded, the prevention and care of pauperism, the management of workhouses and poorhouses,—in fact, every means devised for ameliorating and improving the condition of the defective, dependent, and delinquent classes of our fellow-beings,—you will appreciate the magnitude of the work in which we are engaged, and which you have welcomed to your city with such generous hospitality.

I have been deeply impressed with the power, the growth, and the public spirit of this great metropolis. I believe that its influence for good will be felt more and more throughout the South and the West and the whole Union. I believe that it will soon obtain for Missouri a board of State charities, and place her, if she is not there already,

in the front rank in all benevolent, charitable, and reformatory work. I know that I express the sentiments of the National Conference, when I thank you most heartily for your kindness and your hospitality, and wish you a great and ever-increasing prosperity.

ADDRESS OF COL. W. F. BEASLEY,

PRESIDENT OF THE CONFEDERATE HOME ASSOCIATION OF NORTH CAROLINA.

Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen,—I had supposed before entering this hall that I would be bold enough to give vent to the feelings that have been gathering in my mind, should I be asked to speak; but, as this is the first time I have ever come face to face with General Sherman since I met him at Bentonville, though that was twenty years ago, the *dread* is so great I have lost the greater portion of my speech!

Jesting aside, I have heard so much, have seen so much, learned so much, and felt so much since I came here that I cannot resist the temptation of telling what my feelings are. They are similar to those of a good old Connecticut man, who was wonderfully monosyllabic. For thirty-five years after he attained his maturity, he labored and toiled, but seldom said anything. About this time, he professed religion; and, while especially interested in his work, he was asked by his employer, "Mr. Sexton, how did you feel when you obtained religion?" "Well, Mr. Smith," he replied, "I felt as if I could talk for three long hours, if I just knew what to say!"

That is my feeling to-night. If I just knew what to say, it would take me more than three long hours to tell these good people of St. Louis how much we appreciate their welcome, their kind attention, and the grandeur of their noble city, whose future can never be as bright as the members of this Conference will always wish it may become.

It is already known to you that I come from a Southern State,—from North Carolina. I deem it a pleasure and an honor to represent such a State. I believe that no people in the Union are prouder of their State than are the North Carolinians. For that reason, the Governor sent four delegates here to inform you of her wonderful progress, and to learn what they could. We were instructed carefully to gather and carry back everything that might be used for the good of our State, that she may move upward and onward till she reaches the highest planes of progress and civilization.

Some one spoke the other day of the new civilization of the South; and, a few minutes later, the "new South" was spoken of. It is

nearly twenty years since you inaugurated that new South. It has almost attained its majority. If you could view, without prejudice, the advance we have made in every industry, in every effort to promote the welfare of our people and to educate our children, you would be as glad as we are rejoiced to see the grander success of the Western and Northern States. As representatives, we have testified our determination to hear everything that you have to say, and our sincere respect for this Conference by presenting a full delegation to-night at the close of your labors. And, if the Conference had lasted two weeks longer, we should have remained to show that we came here filled with brotherly love and the hope of obtaining information that would be of benefit to us and to our posterity. Let me assure you that there are no people in this country more willing, more ready, more anxious, and more determined than North Carolinians so to conduct their affairs that the time may come when "man's inhumanity to man" shall be blotted out, and we may have a broader, better, and purer land.

We have talked much of reforming criminals. In North Carolina, we are convinced that we must go before the penitentiary and the jail, and take the little children and teach them *how not to become criminals*. But there are other things that touch on criminality which we are daily and grossly neglecting, as citizens of this great country. When we see the glories we should possess drifting away from us, it will be too late to say, "Next time, we will do better." Let me tell you where that difficulty lies. It is in the selection, from the township up to the national government, of too many corrupt men to make and execute our laws. What we need is purity in the making and administration of laws. We can never have reformation of criminals until we purify the elections of our country and select men of character—yes, pure and moral men—to guide, control, and direct our affairs. When you have done this and you go to the legislature and ask for aid to help these little children to do right from the beginning, to teach them that they may grow up men and women of purity of character, of stability and honesty of purpose and determination, then your work will be easy. I hope and pray that our Conference will continue to move on and push on harmoniously, with pure brotherly love, regardless of section, till we become a concourse so mighty that we shall sweep from existence every impurity, and stamp our impress upon the highest pillar of governmental perfection. Again I thank the gentlemen of St. Louis for their unsurpassed reception and you for your earnest attention.

REMARKS OF BISHOP ROBERTSON.

I do not think that you would desire that I should detain you long from the more pleasant things which await you in another place. In reference to the acknowledgments which you have so kindly expressed for the experiences which you have met in St. Louis, I desire to say that we are all indebted for them to the energy and interest which have been shown and exercised by the Local Committee, and to that Committee on my own part I wish to express my own indebtedness.

And now for the future; and, here, I take my thought from the person who has last spoken. He expressed the hope that brotherly love might continue. You have just chosen as your President one who comes from the City of Brotherly Love, Philadelphia; and he may fairly be taken to represent that sentiment. The Latin equivalent for that apostolic motto is *Philadelphia esto*. I give you then as the motto and rallying cry for the coming year the thought which your President well represents: Let brotherly love continue. *Philadelphia esto*.

Mr. GARRETT.—I think it is a happy coincidence, perhaps, that the home of the incoming President should be Philadelphia; and I hope that the feeling of our Conference throughout the coming year may be, "Let brotherly love continue,"—"Philadelphia esto perpetua." It is to me a delightful thought that from all sections of the country we may now come together to engage in a common work for humanity. May it ever be so in the future!

XII.

Minutes and Discussions.

SECRETARY'S REPORT.

FIRST SESSION.

Monday, Oct. 13, 1884.

The Eleventh Annual Session of the Conference of Charities and Correction began on Monday, Oct. 13, 1884, at Memorial Hall, St. Louis, Mo. The Conference was called to order at 7.30 P.M. by the President, Hon. W. P. Letchworth. Prayer was offered by Bishop G. D. Gillespie, of Michigan. Rev. W. G. Eliot, D.D., chairman of the Local Committee, made a brief opening address, introducing the speakers of the evening (page 1).

Addresses of welcome were made by Hon. Thomas T. Crittenden, Governor of Missouri (page 1), and Hon. William L. Ewing, Mayor of St. Louis (page 4), to which responses were respectively made by Mr. Philip C. Garrett, of Philadelphia (page 5), and Rev. Fred. H. Wines, of Illinois (page 7).

The annual address was then delivered by President Letchworth (page 9).

Capt. SILAS BENT, of the Local Committee, presented invitations to the members of the Conference to visit the Merchants' Exchange, the Public School Library and Reading-room, the School and Museum of Fine Arts, the University Club, the Mercantile Club, the Mercantile Library, the Manual Training School, and all the charitable and correctional institutions of the city. Tickets of admission were furnished to the members of the Conference for such of these institutions as were not open to the general public.

The President stated that action on these courtesies would be taken after organization.

Hon. ANDREW E. ELMORE, of Wisconsin, offered the following resolutions, which were adopted:—

Resolved, That a committee of one be chosen from each State and territory represented, and one from the District of Columbia by the members from such State,

territory, or District, and one to be appointed by the President of this Conference to be the chairman, to decide upon the time and place of meeting of the next Conference.

Resolved, That a Business Committee to consist of five members be appointed by the chair.

Resolved, That a committee to consist of five members be appointed by the chair, to be called a Committee on Organization of the next Conference.

Rev. F. H. WINES, of Illinois, offered the following resolution, which was adopted:—

Resolved, By the National Conference of Charities and Correction, that we hereby extend a cordial greeting to the members of the American Public Health Association, which convenes in this city to-morrow, since we are in full sympathy with the spirit of devotion to science and disinterested regard for the public welfare which prompted its organization, and recognize the fact that whatever promotes the public health tends to diminish pauperism and crime.

Resolved, That the President of the Conference be requested to communicate this action to the President of the Public Health Association, and to express to him our desire to have its members attend any of our sessions at their convenience, and take part in our deliberations.

The President announced the following committees:—

Business Committee.—Hon. Andrew E. Elmore, of Wisconsin; Bishop G. D. Gillespie, of Michigan, Mr. William R. Stewart, of New York; Judge W. A. Grimshaw, of Illinois; Mr. John Fallon, of Massachusetts.

Committee on Organization.—Dr. Charles S. Hoyt, of New York; Rev. Dr. M. McG. Dana, of Minnesota; Rev. A. G. Byers, of Ohio; Mr. W. J. Sawyer, of Pennsylvania; Hon. John C. Scarborough, of North Carolina.

The President appointed Bishop C. F. Robertson as Chairman of the Committee on Time and Place of next meeting. The remaining members were afterward added on the nomination of the delegates from the different States. The final organization was, therefore, as follows:—

The Committee on Time and Place of next meeting.—Rt. Rev. C. F. Robertson, Chairman; Hon. E. R. Highton, California; Mrs. J. S. Sperry, Colorado; Prof. C. A. Lindsley, Connecticut; Mr. Charles M. Koehler, Dakota; Mr. A. S. Pratt, District of Columbia; Mr. O. Huse, Illinois; Mr. L. P. Alden, Indiana; Dr. Jennie McCowen, Iowa; Mr. P. Caldwell, Kentucky; Dr. F. Loeber, Louisiana; Dr. John Morris, Maryland; Hon. John Fallon, Massachusetts; Hon. John J. Wheeler, Michigan; Hon. Nelson Williams, Minnesota; Rev. Dr. T. P. Haley, Missouri; Rev. P. W. Howe, Nebraska; Hon. W. R. Stewart, New York; Hon. J. C. Scarborough, North Carolina; Mr. W. H. Neff, Ohio; Mr. P. C. Garrett, Pennsylvania; Hon. M. C. Goodlett, Tennessee; Hon. H. H. Giles, Wisconsin.

Bishop ROBERTSON invited the citizens of St. Louis to attend the Conference during the week, follow the business, and ask questions

if they desired information, thus to become further interested in the objects that had brought the Conference together.

Mr. WINES announced that the subject for the morning session would be the Reports of States with reference to the work of the past year in charities and corrections.

Adjourned.

SECOND SESSION.

Tuesday morning, Oct. 14.

The Conference met in Pickwick Hall at 9 A.M., President Letchworth in the chair. Prayer was offered by Rev. M. McG. Dana, D.D., of Minnesota.

The President read letters and telegrams from several persons, expressing their regret that they were unable to be present. Among others was one from T. B. Ll. Baker, Esq., of Hardwicke Court, Gloucester, Eng., a distinguished reformer, to whom an invitation had been extended, in accordance with a resolution adopted by the Conference last year. Mr. Baker's advanced age, however, prevented his attending; but he wrote:—

"Accept my sincere and hearty good wishes for the success of your Conference at St. Louis, and my hope that measures may be brought forward and well discussed, which may tend to the lessening of crime and misery. I am sure that in all countries there is much to be done in this respect, and that such meetings as your Conferences are the most likely means of effecting such reduction. Though I cannot come to you and attend your meeting, I hope to hear a good account of it from an eye-witness."

The person to whom Mr. Baker refers was his nephew, Mr. Walter Raleigh Browne, whom he delegated to attend the Conference in his stead. Mr. Browne came to this country early in the season, to be present at the meeting of the Association for the Advancement of Science that convened in Montreal. A few days after the Conference closed, he was taken ill with typhoid fever and died, leaving a young wife among strangers. Mr. Browne was a gentleman of much promise in the scientific world and in charitable circles. He was graduated with the highest honors at Cambridge, Eng. It was in the interest of the science of engineering that he came to this country, but he was also active in connection with prison reforms in England.

The following resolution, called forth by the announcement of the

death of Mr. Browne, was offered by Mr. Philip C. Garrett, of Pennsylvania, and was unanimously adopted : —

Resolved, That the Conference has learned with sincere sorrow of the death of Walter Raleigh Browne, Esq., while *en route* to attend this Conference as the representative of his uncle, the venerable Barwicke Baker, Esq., of Hardwicke Court, Gloucester, Eng., who had been invited, but was unable to be present; and that this resolution be entered in the proceedings of the Conference, and a copy of the same transmitted by the President to Mr. Baker and to the family of the late Mr. Browne.

The following partial report of the Business Committee was adopted : —

We recommend the Conference to meet as follows : morning session, from 9.30 A.M. to 12.30 P.M.; afternoon session, from 2.30 P.M. to 5 P.M.; evening session, from 7.30 P.M. till adjourned. This programme is subject to change by a vote of the Conference.

The subject appointed for the morning, Reports from States, was then taken up. Reports from Maine (page 29), Vermont (page 57), and Rhode Island (page 53), were read by Rev. J. L. Milligan, and the report from Massachusetts by A. O. Wright (page 29). The report from New York was made by Dr. C. S. Hoyt (page 46); from the District of Columbia, by Mrs. Sara A. Spencer (page 24); from Michigan, by W. J. Baxter (page 35); from Minnesota, by Rev. H. H. Hart (page 41); from Wisconsin, by Hon. H. H. Giles (page 58). A report upon the charities and corrections of the city of St. Louis was made by Bishop C. F. Robertson, of the Local Committee (page 59).

Mr. WINES announced that any States which had not submitted reports would be permitted to do so in writing, and, if filed with the committee in season, they would be printed in the Proceedings.

The hour for adjournment having arrived, it was voted, on motion of Mr. Wright, to extend the session for half an hour, to be devoted to a discussion of the reports in five-minute speeches.

DISCUSSION.

Mr. ANDERSON said that he had been much interested in the Wisconsin scheme for the care of the insane in small numbers. The new States put the old ones to shame in the progress they have made in civilization, education, charity, and everything that makes civilization worthy of Christianity and mankind. He thought the plan worth considering. He also wished to call attention to the success of Minnesota in cheap building.

Mr. GALVIN thought the suggestions from Massachusetts admirable, and in the line of progress for nineteenth century civilization.

Massachusetts is like the horse which the Irishman wanted to sell. When it was objected that the horse was small, he replied, "Yes, he's little; but he's old." Her wisdom is demonstrated every year in the good common sense and judgment which she brings to bear in her charitable institutions. Up to this time, in nearly every State, the jails and places of correction have been pest-houses of crime. In the jails, criminals of all sorts are huddled together in one corridor. The boy of ten or twelve, a first offender, comes face to face with the criminal who has been in the State's prison once, twice, perhaps several times. In the city jail of Chicago, old criminals may be seen walking arm in arm, with nothing to do but to talk over crime; and little boys arrested for vagrancy or petty larceny are witnesses and auditors of all that occurs. It has been felt in Chicago that it would be feasible to find employment for prisoners confined for six months or a year. They might do something to help maintain the institution. The plan of classifying criminals followed in Ireland, one of the best systems known to-day, has had a faithful hearing in Massachusetts; and some of the Irish methods have been adopted, so that boys who are committed for a first offence are kept by themselves, brought under educational influences, and are in contact with people who have their hearts in the right place. It is of great importance to combine reformatory with correctional measures. So much punishment for so much crime is a wrong principle. In Chicago, these subjects are beginning to attract attention. Business men are pausing to listen to suggestions as to the proper management of public institutions. Some good suggestions were contained in the live report from Minnesota, that State whose cities can be heard growing in the night, as they say the corn can be heard growing in Illinois.

Mr. LACK said that, from twenty-four years' experience among the poor in St. Louis, he was convinced that the aid which they receive through legal authority they regard as their right and are not grateful for. But, when it is dispensed in the name of God, it reaches the heart. He thought, therefore, that charity should be dispensed through the Christian community rather than through institutions controlled by law. He invited the Conference to visit the Provident Association, with which he is connected.

Mr. Garrett was called upon for a five-minutes address on the new lunacy law in his State.

MR. GARRETT.—The State of Pennsylvania passed in May, 1883, just before the adjournment of the legislature, the Lunacy Act, which is regarded as the most advanced legislation on that subject in this country. It failed, however, to make any appropriation for carrying it out, or any appropriation to the hospitals to meet a loss occasioned by a law passed almost simultaneously, requiring them to charge two instead of three dollars a week to the counties. While I feel sensible of the vastness of the work before us, yet a great deal has been accomplished. The commission is composed of ex-Governor Hoyt, Gen.

W. W. H. Davis, Mr. E. Coppée Mitchell, Dean of the Law Faculty, University of Pennsylvania,—all able men,—Dr. T. G. Morton, a distinguished physician, and myself. Immediately upon its organization, attention was turned to the formation of rules and regulations, which have received the force of law under the Lunacy Act itself. The effect of the law so far has been salutary in the extreme. I would refer especially to one section, which gives the right of correspondence to the inmates of asylums, and requires that letters should be forwarded unopened to members of the committee. This, in itself, gives them a feeling of freedom they did not possess before. It has also placed it within our power to investigate a great many cases of alleged abuse. I think in very few of those cases has there been any great wrong. Most of them have been cases of commitment by court, acquitted of crime on the ground of insanity. Occasionally, a person not insane at all, or but slightly insane, after having been committed, is lost sight of by the courts and retained in the institution for years. In such cases, the committee procures their release, and the judges have expressed the desire that the committee shall investigate any such cases.

Another section requires that the superintendent, if he objects to forwarding letters addressed to other persons, shall make a memorandum of that fact and the reason, in writing, for such rejection; and such rejection shall be submitted to the committee, or its secretary, or visitors. This is a great protection; and an examination of such letters shows that there still remains in the minds of the superintendents an indisposition to recognize the common humanity of the people suffering from this most frightful of all classes of maladies. I think that the position taken by the committee will have a very beneficial effect; that is, that all such letters, unless there is some good reason, should be forwarded. We believe, on inspecting them, that very few could do any harm; and they would give relief in many cases.

Regular reports of the reception, condition, and movements of patients are sent to the Committee on Lunacy. The committee may at any time order the discharge of any patient not committed by order of court. The secretary has been busily engaged in visiting the institutions, effecting transfers of patients requiring better care from county poorhouses to State hospitals, searching out cases of inhuman treatment in private families, etc.

While the working of the law is most salutary, its evolution to the best results attainable will be a work of time. The very existence of such a law, however, has a sensible moral effect, which will be increased by a careful enforcement of its provisions.

Mr. WRIGHT.—What was said in the report from Michigan on county jails applies with equal force to the county jails of every State: only, in States which have not State boards, their horrors have not been brought out to the public as they have been in Michigan. The herding together of innocent persons, or persons simply suspected of crime, with hardened criminals is due largely to defective adminis-

tration of the present system; but the system itself is wrong. In Michigan, a part of this evil is done away with by the establishment of State reformatories to which persons convicted of petty offences are sent. Another evil is the system of giving fees to sheriffs. A premium is put on their office. They can make all the money they want out of it. Massachusetts has made great advance in electing salaried sheriffs. When I visited the jail in Boston, I found the sheriff had held office for thirty years, and the jail was generally regarded as the best institution of its kind, not only in regard to construction, but in management as well.

Mr. HOWE said that he brought the greeting of Mrs. A. F. Newman, State superintendent of jail and prison work in Nebraska, who was unable to be present on account of an accident. Mrs. Newman has this year been through the State of Nebraska, and arranged that "flower mission" days should be observed in every county where there is a jail. The flowers have been very gladly received, some of the prisoners keeping them for days and weeks. She received the suggestion for this work at Louisville last year.

Miss PHEBE COUZINS emphasized the suggestion in regard to sheriffs. She thought it might also hold good in the payment of other officers,—United States marshals, deputy clerks, and district attorneys. As she herself is a recognized United States deputy marshal,—the only woman so employed in the United States,—she knew what the evils of the present system are. The only remedy is for officers to have a dignified income for their services and their duties recognized as legitimate business. She also emphasized the necessity of having women in such offices. Women prisoners are often brought into the United States court and are obliged to be examined, and heretofore by men. There should be always women in this department, fitted for the position and officially commissioned.

Mr. RANDALL thought it a matter of congratulation that the United States has at least one lady deputy marshal. He was glad if there is one place where ladies have civil rights, and he hoped they would discharge their duties to the best of their ability. In regard to what had been said about the State of Michigan not keeping boys separate from adult criminals in the jails, he wished to say that in 1881 a very radical law was enacted for the protection of children. In that law is a provision which prohibits the confinement of boys with adult criminals. It may not be enforced at present; but there is the law, and good citizens can see that it is enforced.

Mr. HALEY, of Kansas City, reminded the Conference that the recommendation contained in the report of the local committee for St. Louis, as to the organization of associated charities in cities, could be adopted without waiting for legislation, since it does not depend upon it. He hoped that every city in the State would act upon this suggestion.

Adjourned.

THIRD SESSION.

Tuesday afternoon, Oct. 14.

The Conference met at 2.30 P.M.

Rabbi SONNESCHEIN called attention to the establishment of a new hospital for children in St. Louis, the Augusta, named and endowed in memory of a dear child, and suggested that the trustees of that institution and the president, Mrs. William Ware, should be invited to take part in the proceedings on Wednesday, when the subject of Child-saving should be considered.

The President replied that, knowing so well as he did the sentiments of that committee, he would venture to give such an invitation to the trustees of the Augusta Children's Hospital, in the name of the Child-saving Committee. It was announced that farther discussion on the Reports from States would be in order.

DISCUSSION.

Mr. BERRY said that he understood Dr. Hoyt to state that by a law recently enacted in New York it would henceforth be impossible to use the labor of convicts. In other words, the convict had been commanded to lay away his tools. He asked if that were so.

Dr. HOYT.—The condition is this: In 1882, the question of the abolition of the contract system of labor for convicts came up. The people, by an emphatic vote, decided for its abolition. The legislature of 1884, in obedience to the expressed will of the people at the polls, provided for the abolition of the contract system of labor in all prisons, penitentiaries, reformatories, and houses of refuge, to take effect on the expiration of their existing contracts. The law does not touch contracts in effect at the time of its passage, but the authorities have no right to make new contracts. It was a popular idea, at the time, that the act would be construed so as to permit the employment of convicts and children in refuges upon piece work. The question has recently been presented to the attorney-general; and his decision is—and that will be final, unless carried to the courts and reversed—that the law prohibits even their employment on piece work, or on the "piece price plan," so fully developed and advocated by Mr. Brockway at the last Conference. We shall, therefore, soon be thrown on our own resources to devise means of labor for convicts to be carried on by the State. The question is one that is quite likely to agitate the public mind during the session of the next legislature, and we may have a reaction that will lead possibly to the repeal of the law or to great modification of it. That is the exact condition of things now existing in New York. There is no law prohibiting the employment of prisoners, but they cannot be employed by the day or piece by contract.

Mr. BERRY.—So that, unless the State of New York is prepared

to go on with certain branches of labor,—such, for instance, as Mr. Brockway has been carrying on under his own supervision at Elmira,—those hands must remain idle?

Dr. HOYT.—In the Elmira Reformatory, Mr. Brockway commenced by providing his own machinery, purchasing material, and transacting business as an individual would. In all the other institutions, contractors have taken their place in the institutions; and the prisoners have never, to any great extent, worked by the piece. Three years ago, the legislature, by a committee, investigated the system at Elmira; and it was found that the State was very largely in debt. The institution had the material on hand; and Mr. Brockway thought that, if permitted to go on and work it up, he would still make it profitable. The legislature, however, took the other view, and ordered the work to cease. He was thus forced to go under the contract system; but, instead of contracting by the day, he contracted by the piece. As soon as that contract ceases, he cannot renew it; and he must employ the convicts otherwise, or allow them to remain idle.

Mr. LETCHWORTH.—I desire to supplement Dr. Hoyt's reply to Mr. Berry's question by adding a curious fact connected with this legislation. Last winter, a law was passed abolishing the contract system in our State prisons. This did not apply to houses of refuge (reform schools), and a law was subsequently enacted abolishing the contract system in all juvenile reformatories. Those who originated this measure—which had, in a previous year, passed both branches of the legislature, but had been vetoed by the governor—favored permission to contract by the piece, the work being done under the sole direction of the officers of the institution. But the radical sentiment in the legislature against contracting the labor in any form struck out of the bill a clause granting such permission, leaving the statutes as Dr. Hoyt has stated.

Mr. BERRY.—My doubt was an honest one, and I am obliged to the gentlemen for answering my question. But I wanted to know just how far we in our other States could safely follow the lead of the great and much honored State of New York; but, Mr. President, we cannot follow her in that direction. The doctrine that she has been tempted to follow is not only unsound, but in every respect dangerous. It is not only that, but it is unspeakably cruel toward the convict, who in the end is going to be made to bear the consequence of that legislation. If it results in enforced idleness on his part, then we may attempt to do what we will to supply the deficiency which that idleness will induce; and our ingenuity is not sufficient to do it, for there is nothing that can take the place of an opportunity to labor. Now, if it be said that it is only a change of masters; that the law of the State of New York does not do that, does not induce the prisoner to lay away the tools and remain in idleness, but simply aims to follow out the suggestions of our friend from New Orleans [Mr. Cable], who treated the subject of convict labor last year,—then we say that your argument that convict labor is brought into competition with free labor, and therefore a change of

proprietorship should be made, amounts to nothing. It affects you just the same, whether the State shall manufacture or whether Mr. A. shall hire the labor. In any way you can do it, you are but walking around a circle. You are driven back to the fact that the effect of that legislation is to make the convict lay away his tools. I say that it is our duty to secure for the convict the boon of a chance to work. To deny it to him is like shutting out the light of heaven. If New York asks the rest of the States to follow in that direction, I desire to enter an earnest individual protest.

Mr. ELMORE presented the following report from the Business Committee, which was unanimously adopted:—

The Business Committee appointed by this Conference reports as follows:—

In the presentation of reports from States sending delegates, it is recommended that ten minutes be allowed for each State; and, when reports are made upon different subjects and at different times, the reports of each State may occupy ten minutes. The time is to be divided among the delegates as they may agree, but it is not to be extended except by unanimous consent of the Conference.

In the debates of the Conference, the following rules are recommended by the committee:—

1. Each delegate to speak but five minutes, and not to speak twice until all others have had an opportunity to be heard.
2. Each speaker to announce the particular reports or papers which he rises to discuss, and to confine his remarks to those, but with liberty to discuss, successively, more than one of the subjects presented in the papers.
3. All voting upon resolutions, or other business of the Conference, to be confined to its accredited members, whose names will be submitted and printed, with additions, day by day.
4. All papers to be read before this Conference must be presented by a committee or by the writer thereof.
5. The last forty-five minutes of each session of this Conference shall be devoted to discussion.
6. The first half-hour of the Wednesday morning session shall be devoted to obtaining notices of deceased members.

The subject for the morning, Charity Organization in Cities, was then taken up. Mr. Charles S. Fairchild, of New York, chairman of the Committee on Charity Organization in Cities, gave an address on the Objects of Charity Organization (page 65).

Mr. HALEY said that he lived in a city of a hundred thousand people. There were various charitable and relief societies in it; but one never knows what the other is doing, and they are constantly duplicating their work. One man, for instance, sought relief from three different churches within twenty-four hours, and belonged to each when he made his application; and he was assisted by all of them. How could this co-operation of relief-giving societies be effected?

Mr. FAIRCHILD replied that for a city of the size of Kansas City he would advise Mr. Haley to write to Rev. Oscar C. McCulloch of Indianapolis (a city of about the same size), and ask his counsel. His whole heart was in this work, and he would doubtless be glad to give time and trouble to such a correspondence.

Miss Zilpha D. Smith, registrar of the Associated Charities of Boston, then read a paper on Volunteer Visiting (page 69).

Mr. DANA.—Is the whole city of Boston districted for the work of the charity organization?

Miss SMITH.—All but two or three outlying districts. In one of these there is an older society doing similar work, in the other there is less need of work of this kind.

Mr. DANA.—When the visitor finds a case of distress, who relieves it?

Miss SMITH.—The *visitor* rarely finds a need of instant relief. If such a case is found, we have no difficulty in getting interim relief from the Provident Association. There are sometimes cases where help is needed, and needed quickly; but there are usually benevolent individuals from whom such temporary assistance may be had.

Mr. Lyman S. Emery, of Washington, read a paper on Almsgiving Societies (page 73).

Mr. W. Alex. Johnson, of Cincinnati, read a paper on Relief Work (page 77).

DISCUSSION.

Mr. MATTHEWS said that the need of organization is clear. He had seen the advantage of it in New York City. But there were several things it had to contend with. One was that so many people say they prefer to help those who appeal to them personally, thus overlooking the difference between true charity and almsgiving. Another was that, though the churches claim to care for their poor, hundreds from the churches ask relief of the different societies in the cities. The wealthy ought to come in and help in this work. And one of the objects of charity organization should be to teach the people who come crowding into the city, thinking to find a fortune, that there is a better way, and to help them to help themselves in smaller places.

Mr. LACK, of St. Louis, upheld the work of the Provident Association. It also employs visitors who decide in part who shall be helped. Cards are printed and distributed through the city, and persons seeking help are given these. They are visited, and, when possible, referred to the churches or societies which would naturally relieve them. If the church is not able to help them, but indorses the application, relief is furnished by the Provident Association. This association was organized in 1861, and has given a great amount of relief in that time, caring especially for those for whom nobody else cares.

Mr. JOHNSON, of Cincinnati, asked the chairman if he would not state the two or three essential features of a charity organization society upon which all agree, whether relief-giving or not.

The Chair asked Mr. Johnson to reply to his own question.

Mr. JOHNSON.—First and most important is a central registration,—one place in the city where every receiver of charity and every form of relief shall be registered together, in such a way that the aid from all the different societies shall be, so to speak, charged up to one account for each person receiving. This can be done by a simple system of bookkeeping, which any business man could easily arrange. A very good plan is to have a card register kept in alphabetical order, and arranged so that the accounts of the different families of the same name all fall together, showing the relations among pauper families.

Mr. DANA.—How is that knowledge obtained?

Mr. JOHNSON.—By the co-operating persons and societies sending reports of their work to the common centre. Along with this is the information department, which is a part of the work of the same central office. The information gained is given to every person inquiring, who comes properly accredited, whether he co-operates and registers or not. There should be, further, certain places appointed with regular agents, whether paid or not, who shall be present at regular times to receive applicants for alms or other assistance. That is, there should be one central office for central registration and giving information, and one or more offices for receiving applications. The ideal would be that no person in the city, no individual, no church, no society, should give systematically or occasionally without knowing whether other societies, churches, or persons, are also giving to the same applicant. In a country village of five or six hundred inhabitants, if poverty overtakes a family, the neighbors step in and give the aid needed, and no more than is needed. The conditions of life in large cities forbid this neighborly help, since we cannot have the neighborly knowledge. The idea of the central office is to collect and distribute the kind of information about the poor of a city that people have about their poorer neighbors in a little village. The next essential feature arises from the fact that the case of every family in distress requires careful consideration, only to be given by the serious, intelligent thought of business men and noble-hearted women joining together in council. Every case must be considered on its individual merits by a committee to decide, with a friendly visitor to carry out the decision. You may organize this committee in many different ways, as you may your central and district offices. But so long as you have, first, a common registration; second, a regular time, place, and agent to receive applications; third, a full use of the information permitted to every proper inquirer; and, fourth, careful consideration of every case, with a view to something more than mere material relief,—you have the essential features of a charity organization society.

Mrs. SPENCER wished it might be fully realized that, when a

charity organization society has once adopted the system of direct relief-giving, it cannot retreat from it.

Mr. WILLIAMS asked how out-door relief was granted in New York.

Mr. FAIRCHILD replied that in New York there was no out-door relief except for coal, and about forty thousand dollars divided among the blind who live at home. All other relief is furnished by private charities.

Mr. WILLIAMS.—Does the New York Charity Organization Society ever give money?

Mr. FAIRCHILD.—The society gives nothing. There are individuals who are ready to give; and, in cases where it has been necessary, we have given a great deal of money, a good many dollars in one case, but this was not given by our society. We think that giving would weaken it. When we decide that such and such a thing is necessary, we seek for the agency that will meet that need. Of course, individual members of the society give money for various things; but no one connected with it gives anything as a member of that society.

Mr. DANA.—Do you have any trouble in securing the co-operation of Catholics?

Mr. FAIRCHILD.—Some will work with us, and others will not have anything to do with us.

Mr. WRIGHT stated that, at a meeting of the Indianapolis Charity Organization Society which he attended, the vicar-general of the diocese was present consulting with the other members of the committee in regard to the care of the poor, and he made statements about the Catholic poor as freely as the others did.

Mr. SPAUNHORST said that after thirty years' experience in St. Louis he could relate the *modus operandi* of the St. Vincent de Paul Society. It has weekly meetings; and, at these meetings, every family that has made application for aid is placed on the rolls. Visitors are appointed for that family or families. No relief is given without a visit. The greatest difficulty arises from the fact that men of experience and leisure will not give their time to this work. As for co-operation, while not all the time working in harmony with other organizations, it must be said that there were a good many prejudices on all sides. No difficulty had been found in getting means for aiding the poor. He believed in organization, and thought that much more might be done than had been done without any clashing of religious views. The duty of helping one's fellow-men was evident. What was needed was to hit upon some plan by which this could best be done. There was need of improvement. The people soon find out in which district they get most help, and move up to it. Some of them are very cunning. At one time, he had so many calling at his house, where it was well known that they would always have something to eat, that he gave orders to furnish nothing but good soup to every one that asked for food. The result was that in about three weeks the number lessened very much. They were tired of

soup every day. This showed that by management a good deal can be done.

Mr. PARTRIDGE, of St. Louis, said that it makes a difference what one gives to the poor. His association gives coal and bread, baking twenty-five barrels of flour a day to be given away, besides corn meal. It gives very little money except to pay rent occasionally. The fund to meet these expenses of from twelve to twenty thousand dollars is raised by subscription. The collectors never have any difficulty in getting all the money wanted. About two thousand families are helped annually, at an average cost of from five to nine dollars; and each family is faithfully visited. Tramps are sent to the Provident wood-yard.

Mr. PRATT illustrated by an incident that occurred in Washington the working of the plans already described. A Catholic family that was found in sickness and distress had been overlooked by the parish to which it belonged. It was visited by the officer of the organized charity society, reported to that parish, and was at once relieved. Here, no money was given by the society, and yet immediate aid was furnished.

Dr. DUTTON, of Cleveland, said that one principle should not be forgotten. Every time that you give a well person a loaf of bread or a dollar in money without requiring of him some return, you advance him one step toward pauperism. In every city, some central place should be provided, where it can be ascertained whether applicants for aid are really needy. The sick must be taken care of, and they generally are in some way. They should not be sent to the poor-house. For the able-bodied who cannot get work, work should be provided. If work cannot be found for them, then it should be made for them. Furnish work on the same principle that you give money. Those able to labor, but who can find nothing to do, in our cities, every winter, make up a large proportion of those who need assistance. The thing is to study methods by which they can earn something. If a man applies to me for assistance, and I have nothing else for him to do, I will let him come in and dust my books, or remove a pile of bricks from one corner of my yard to another. The next applicant may move them back again. This may be of no service to me, but it is good for him. I should pay him liberally for this labor. As far as I am concerned, I have given him money; but he feels that he has earned it, and his manhood has not been sacrificed by his receiving a gratuity. The organization of charities is to prevent pauperism. Any man who ever looked into the causes of pauperism in great cities has found that where most has been given there has been most pauperism, and this as a direct result of wrong methods of giving. In all our great cities, the problem confronts us as to how we can help the poor, and not demoralize them. It is utterly impossible for any human being to receive a gift as a beggar without being debased by it. On that principle, we make paupers whenever we give. Let our charities be so administered as to cultivate a feeling among the poor that they must be dependent on their own efforts, and not that they can at any time fall back for support on some well-organized

charitable body. There is wealth and ability and opportunity enough in this growing republic to give labor to every person, if he is willing to work. How to bring the work and the worker together is the question.

Rabbi KRAUSKOPF.—I have come here for a double purpose,—as a delegate appointed by the Governor of Missouri and as president of the Poor Man's Free Labor Bureau of Kansas City. We have realized the difficulties which the previous speaker touched on. We mean to bring out the godlike within man, to respect man's manhood; and that is by giving him work. Kansas City is a peculiar place. The people are young, full of life and energy. They have come west to grow up with the country. They are still coming west for that purpose, and often they are liable to disappointment. Every train brings them to us. They come to us for help. There is a saying, "rich as a Jew"; but these people seem to think that, if a Jew is rich, a rabbi is richer. They come to my door; but, as a rule, they do not come begging. They seem unable to shift for themselves. They come of all races, creeds, and classes. Having great respect for the old law of Moses, I had made up my mind never to let a poor man go from my door unfed; but this got to be known among the people, and I had any number of visitors. That set me to thinking; and, as a result, we have now the Poor Man's Free Labor Bureau. The clerk is there from eight till five. If I need a man to do a half-day's work, I telephone to the bureau or send a message, and in ten minutes there is a man at hand to do the work. We have given employment during one week to 156 men. From July 15 to August 15, we gave employment to 526. They have come to our doors for charity, and we have given them work. If they return to us from the bureau with a card saying there is no work, then we may give money, not before. There should be such a bureau in every town and city of the States of Missouri, Nebraska, and Kansas. There is work enough, if the men could only be directed to the right places.

Adjourned.

FOURTH SESSION.

Tuesday night, Oct. 14.

At the opening of the session, Captain Bent, in behalf of the Sisters of Charity who conduct the St. Louis Hospital, invited the Conference to visit that institution. It was voted to accept the invitation, with thanks.

The President presented the following resolution from the Public Health Association:—

Resolved, That a cordial invitation be extended to the members of the National Board of Charities now in session in St. Louis to attend the meetings of the American Public Health Association, and that the President of this body be requested to extend such fraternal invitation through the President of the National Board of Charities.

IRVING A. WATSON,

Secretary A. P. H. A.

It was voted to accept the invitation, with thanks.

The discussion of charity organization was continued, and Mr. Fairchild was invited to conduct it.

By special request of Bishop Robertson, of St. Louis, made at the afternoon session, answers were requested from representatives of charity organization societies to the two questions: What is the place in the plan of a charity organization society for an existing relief society, such, for instance, as the St. Louis Provident Association? and, What is the meaning of the expression, "referring a case"?

The Chair asked Mr. Johnson to reply to these questions.

Mr. JOHNSON.—The place occupied by a society of the nature of the St. Louis Provident Association is one of the greatest importance. In fact, without such assistance as that association gives, no charity organization can be successful. After having visited that society's rooms, and inspected the books and seen the admirable way they are kept; after having seen the ovens and coal-sheds, etc., and heard the explanation of its system of work by the superintendent,—I could not help wishing most heartily that we had at our command in Cincinnati just such an excellent, well-managed, thoroughly organized system of voluntary out-door relief. A charity organization society here would be very fortunate in having ready to hand such an instrument as this.

By "referring a case" to another society, we mean considering, by the agent or by the decision committee, which of the various co-operating societies meets the wants of the particular family under discussion, and then seeing that the family has its wants relieved by that society. If, for instance, a charity organization society were instituted here, frequent instances would arise in which a poor family would require a certain amount of regular assistance for a long period of time. The decision committee would refer such families to the Provident Association; and, if that association relieved their wants in the way and to the degree suggested by the decision committee, these cases would be disposed of as far as their material relief was concerned. But such a thing might happen as the Provident Association, for some reason, refusing the relief suggested. Then some other society or form of relief would be sought, and so on until satisfactory aid was obtained. That is to say, after having taken hold of a case and decided on it, it is not let go until it is relieved in precisely the right way. I may say that where hearty co-operation is established, a refusal of a case referred in the way I have mentioned is of extremely rare occurrence, and probably indicates an error or oversight in the work of the decision committee or the agent.

Mr. FAIRCHILD.—I might add that several years ago some gentlemen started a charity organization society or associated charities in New York, which failed. However, the managers of the Society for Improving the Condition of the Poor came to the conclusion that something of the sort was very much needed; and the result was that the officers of that society were among the most active in forming

the present society, giving it, free of rent, its rooms in a building owned by them, and many of the officers of that association are officers of the Charity Organization Society. And yet the Society for Improving the Condition of the Poor is almost exactly like the Provident Association of St. Louis. There is no necessary conflict between two such societies.

A paper was next read by Rev. C. R. Henderson, of Detroit, on Co-operation of the Churches (page 80).

DISCUSSION.

Mr. SHORT, of Brooklyn.—You are considering the organization of charities. Why do you style it charity organization? Simply because many of the people have tried individual charity work long enough, and now they think that organization for charitable work is the necessity of the moment. I believe it firmly. I come from a city of six hundred thousand people,—a city that in past winters has spent, in temporary relief to the poor, outside of all the expenditures by the arm of the law for the maintenance of the poor and sick, a sum each winter of from a hundred to a hundred and thirty thousand dollars, between the first of December and the last of February. In 1878, by reason of its having cost eighty-eight cents (as was said) to expend each dollar of that money contributed by the tax-payer, some of the people took occasion to inquire into the possibility of the legality of that expense. And the best legal minds decided that they had no iota of right in law to raise and expend in that way that sum of money. Therefore, from that moment it ceased. The last day of February, 1878, saw the last dollar spent for that work in that community. You will naturally suppose that our almshouses and our hospitals must have been overflowing after that. I will say, as a fact, that from that moment our department, which is the one sole provision for the poor under the law, has maintained fewer in its almshouses and in its hospitals than it did while they were expending so much each winter. You can draw your own conclusions. The people have not suffered from the deprivation of that contribution. They have been better taken care of than ever before. How?

The people have assumed the right which inheres in every man and woman, the right to practise charity from their own pockets. The people then organized themselves to supply the deficiency supposed to follow the withdrawal of this large sum of money, and the people have done their duty. They have, through the Society for Improving the Condition of the Poor, relieved cases where it was deemed necessary, and withheld it where it was found unnecessary. Our citizens took pleasure in contributing from a dollar to a thousand dollars each to this society, and thus they realized about thirty thousand dollars yearly; and they have found that sufficient. But, recently, they have found something still better to relieve and help them; and that is charity organization. Three years ago, the Hon. Seth Low, now mayor of Brooklyn, was mainly instrumental in convincing people

that in the direction of *organization* was the secret of successful charity work. Thus, a society was established known as the "Bureau of Charities," which is simply a bureau for the reception, collection, and dispensing information regarding the poor. If a beggar applies at my door or if I meet him in the streets, I send to that bureau; and, if they have any information about him, I will get it back by telephone or telegraph or message immediately. If they have not such information, they will get it, and from that moment it becomes a matter of record. Now, what has that society found? It has found that innumerable instances of great suffering were being continually relieved in duplication, by the Society for the Improvement of the Condition of the Poor to the extent of one dollar per week, by the St. Vincent de Paul and several others to the same extent. In short, they were living magnificently. In one case, a family was receiving three thousand dollars a year in that way. Organized charity will stop that, and you cannot stop it in any other way. I would like to emphasize a thought which Dr. Dutton expressed this afternoon, that "any person who receives a gift without the opportunity to render an equivalent for it has taken the first step toward pauperism." Nothing was ever said that is truer, in my experience; and I deal with a large number of dependent persons every day. Organized charity intelligently applied has for one of its fundamental objects the prevention of just that thing. What do most of the paupers that I meet every day want? They want somebody of superior intelligence and force to *think* and act for them. They want to be helped. They don't really want alms. They want some one with a broader mind than their own, who has had wider observation and experience than they, who has a more commanding place in society, to help them plan how they can get out of their sorrow. When you have done that, you have rendered to a person one of the best efforts of your life, and one of the most effective things for his existence that you can give. A man or a woman can pick up food everywhere in this bounteous country of ours. There is slight need for starvation, but there is a wonderful need of help to protect the poor and the weak from asking alms. Charity organization does that. Let me impress on your minds the great advantage of organization. I am eleven hundred miles from home. If I wish to send a message there, shall I give it to a page and bid him fly to that distant home and deliver it, at an expense of five hundred dollars perhaps? Or shall I commit it to the *organized* system of postal delivery, and have it delivered in thirty-eight hours, at an expense of two cents? Isn't there logic in this? I hope you will all see the wisdom of charity organization, and will carry it out in whatever community you may be placed.

Mr. GALVIN.—While charity organization in its vital elements is the grandest movement of the nineteenth century, and while it has proved a success in places like New York, Philadelphia, Cincinnati, and Buffalo, still it is a very difficult matter to bring the subject before the business men of the large cities. In many of these cities there have been for years prosperous benevolent associations dear

to the people. They do not see the practical value of charity organization in the light in which the friends of that cause seek to present it. It seems a very harsh thing to say to generous-hearted merchants, to ministers and people: "My dear friends, do you know that for many years you have been committing a sin in this respect; that much of the giving which you have done with all the warmth of your nature tends to undermine the manhood of man and the womanhood of woman, to take away the feeling of the necessity for honest effort and industry? Have you not done an injury to that woman or that man? Look beyond your charity association, and see how many people in the past twenty years have lied to you, have been getting money under false pretences, have imposed upon you."

The facts brought to light in every great city prove these things true, however. We find that we have been following wrong deductions, misconstruing grand texts. We have been following too literally the precept: "Let not thy left hand know what thy right hand doeth," "From him that would borrow of thee turn not thou away." But we have forgotten those other sayings: "My Father worketh hitherto, and I work," "The laborer is worthy of his hire," "Go work in my vineyard, and whatsoever is right ye shall receive." We have forgotten that all the beauty and bounty of this world represent providence, forethought, industry, that there is no waste in the divine economy, that the fragments have all been gathered up.

Charity organization must not, however, be regarded as a mere machine. If we regard it merely as a labor-saving machine, we make a great mistake. It represents more real charity than any organization the world has ever seen. It stands for more of human brotherhood, more of that deep sympathy which is to make the whole world kin. It rests upon us to look with great care to the ends of our work, to see that the gift does not tend to lower our brother man, that we help him to stand on his own feet and be a man, to give that kind of help that always has respect for those tender sensibilities that we find in the hearts of the worthy and deserving poor.

Mr. WINES expressed the hope that some one present would define more clearly the precise point of difference between a charity organization society and a relief and aid society or provident association. In Chicago, the Relief and Aid Society insists that no charity organization society is required, since it could accomplish nothing which the existing society does not do. Is this true? and, if not, why not? The Relief and Aid Society claims that all that can be done in the direction of the suppression of beggary and of almsgiving at the door, the exposure of impostors, the investigation of cases of actual distress, and the diffusion of correct views on the subject of pauperism, is already done. In Washington, we see the same field apparently occupied by two separate organizations, of which one administers relief and the other does not. In Pittsburgh, there is a society which believes itself to be a charity organization society, but that its claim to be such is not admitted, because it furnishes relief; and it feels itself to be wronged thereby. What are we to

understand by charity organization? What is its peculiar and distinctive feature, which marks the point of separation between the work undertaken, for instance, by the St. Louis Provident Association and that of the societies under discussion? Is it the refusal to grant relief? Is it the district conference? Is it unpaid, voluntary visitors? Is it the clearing-house system of exchange of information? Is it the effort to bring the rich and the poor into personal contact, and to create friendship, more useful to the poor than money? Is it the giving of a friend? What is it? He did not ask these questions in a critical spirit: he believed that these societies are a great benefit to the cities in which they are found; but he wished to give direction to the discussion, so as to remove objections and clear up difficulties which honestly perplex many minds not familiar with the details of charitable work in cities.*

Miss Smith was invited to reply to some of the questions suggested by Mr. Wines.

MISS SMITH.—I can, perhaps, answer some of Mr. Wines' questions, because we had to meet them in Boston.

The part of our work called registration was established nearly three years before the formation of the Associated Charities, and grew out of a desire of the Provident Association (corresponding to the Relief and Aid Society of Chicago) to gain information in some systematic way of what others were doing. They could not afford time to go about from one charity to another all over the city to inquire about individual families. Now, the charities send daily, weekly, or less frequent reports to our central office. At first, the exchange of these reports between charities interested in the same family was

*The true difference between a relief association and a society for the organization of charity appears to be, not that the one dispenses aid directly and the other not, but that the one seeks to aid none but the worthy, while the other recognizes the fact that the unworthy are the most in need of help. Both are alike agencies for the suppression of mendicity; both prevent, to a greater or less degree, the duplication of relief, which is a great evil in almsgiving; both are obstacles to successful imposture. Thus far, they agree. But the fact that a relief or provident association has money to bestow, and that it is the trustee for others who have contributed to its funds, must create in its officers a certain mental attitude toward applicants for assistance. It is under obligation to show, if it can, that the applicant is unworthy, and, when this is shown, to turn him away from its doors. Any other course would be a violation of the trust reposed in it by its patrons, who expect it to make their money go as far as possible and prevent it from being squandered or misapplied. A society for the organization of charity, on the contrary, has, ordinarily, no money in its hands for distribution: it gives advice only. Consequently, it is free from the temptation to drive unworthy applicants back into the darkness of despair: these have a peculiar claim upon its care. Its field is broader, its aim wider, its work deeper. The lack of funds within its own control is no disadvantage to it, since it can send the worthy elsewhere for material aid. It is, in reality, an advantage; for it renders its judgment more impartial and its counsel more disinterested. It can say to an applicant that which he would never hear from the lips of any officer of an association for direct relief. It is more in sympathy with him. Instead of repelling him, it invites him: it feels itself responsible for him. Beyond this difference of relation to applicants, its relation to the community is different. A relief society or provident association is an almoner: it, accordingly, excites jealousy or even active hostility, it may be, on the part of other agencies for material and pecuniary relief to the poor. It would, for this simple but sufficient reason, find it difficult to place itself at the head of an organized movement in which all the laborers in the broad field of charity in the city are to be massed and directed as a unit. But a society for the organization of charity, not being itself an almoner, excites no such jealousy; and its services are welcomed by those who feel their isolation and see the evil results of scattered effort by a multitude of distinct associations. It is in a position to bring together those who are far apart, to convert strangers, not merely into acquaintances, but into friends and allies. It can stimulate discussion, offer opportunities for the interchange of experience and opinions, prepare the way for work upon parallel or convergent lines, heal antagonisms, and reduce the friction and consequent loss of effective power in charitable efforts to a minimum. No relief society can perform this special function equally well.—F. H. W.

made monthly. This disclosed mistakes already made, but prevented none. Now, reports are sent immediately from society to society. The registries are private. Not even members of the society can examine the records. They, like others, must show that they have a charitable interest in any particular family before they receive information. The Provident Association from the beginning has given \$250 each year toward the registration expenses, and sends its records to us daily.

On the other hand, the Provident Association did not believe that another agency for investigation was needed, nor that a large number of volunteers could be organized to do good work among the poor. They argued from experience that volunteers were likely to urge too generous gifts, and to give up the work just when they were beginning to be of real use.

Now that the Associated Charities have been at work several years, the Provident Association acknowledges that the work of our visitors is, so far, not a failure. Its success has been largely due to the system I described this afternoon.

The character of the relief given by the Provident Association has not changed. The same gentleman is in charge, a shrewd, kindly man and an excellent executive officer. The Association makes investigation to learn whether present relief is needed or not, but does not go far enough to find out the cause and remove it, as the Associated Charities try to do. The Association acknowledges that we help rather than hinder their good work. As a practical proof of their confidence in us is the fact that they are often willing to help a family to a larger amount than is their custom, at the request of the Conference of the Associated Charities which is going on with the family, and will see that the plan for helping them pulls through. The fact that we find in our record that two or three societies have helped one family does not prove that it is fraudulent. A list of seventy-four names was recently sent in by a society that gives aid to elderly widows that "have seen better days." We returned information concerning fifty-nine of them. This did not show that those fifty-nine were unworthy of help, but rather that the pension given by that society — the same amount to each widow — was not always sufficient. Each society helping, however, needed to know what others were doing.

As to co operation with the churches, I should like to tell what three churches in Boston have done. Since the beginning of the work of our society, the idea that relief should come from one source, whenever possible, has been strongly advocated. But, with the present organization of our charities, it was almost impossible to arrange this, except when a private individual would undertake the whole care of a family; and there were few individuals who would give to one family two or three hundred dollars a year, until the children were grown or the invalids should die. Partly perhaps because we have advocated it, and because members of these three churches, some of whom worked with us, have seen the evils of the

old plan, this new one grew up. The churches send to us a list of names of families,—merely the names and places of residence,—and say, "We will take full charge of these families, visiting and relieving; and we ask that no one else shall help." This means: We do not want the city nor any charitable society to give alms to this family. We will ourselves give all that is needed; we do not want the Associated Charities to send even a friendly visitor there: we will send one ourselves. That brief statement is sent to every society that has helped or visited the family, *and the request is respected*. The list from one church included several families who had been receiving pensions from the city, as well as many who had occasional help from it, and others still who had known only private charity. By this plan, the church protects the privacy of its charitable work, while retaining all the benefits of co-operation. Two of these churches have adopted the system of the Associated Charities in regard to friendly visitors, who are assigned to families instead of districts, and who hold frequent and regular conferences. They employ an almoner, so that relief-giving is separated from the friendly visiting. The plan has worked admirably.

Mr. LETCHWORTH said that he had formerly felt the same difficulty that Mr. Wines had experienced in understanding just the basis of the charity organization society, but he had taken the pains to go to headquarters, both in London and in this country, and to look carefully into the subject; and he thought that the whole matter would become transparent to any one who would give it a thorough examination.

Mr. SKENE.—On account of this being the annual meeting of our Charity Organization Society in Louisville, Ky., I am the only delegate here to-night. They are simply discussing the problem for Louisville, while you are discussing it for the nation. Our society has been in existence only seven months; but, in that length of time, we have done a good deal. We do not dispense charity directly, but work through others. We find relief for many by sending them to their friends in different parts of the country, who promise to take care of them. In the last five months, forty-two such cases have been sent from our western office and nine from the eastern office, fifty-one in all. Others have been helped in various ways, so that they have become self-supporting. The labor market in Louisville is crowded, yet we find work for a great many; but we cannot find work for a tenth of the people coming to us for employment. Our registration has been very useful to us, in stopping overlapping. We have found out many cases where families were receiving help from a number of sources, and each one helping them supposed they were the sole donors. One woman in this way received forty-five dollars a month in money, and about forty or forty-five in clothing and other articles. Such people we admonish, and warn them to desist and find honest employment, else they must either leave the city or we will place them in the workhouse. This class of persons, when found out, generally leave the town in a hurry. We have a number of societies

co-operating with us, that give immediate help or take cases off our hands, when referred to them. Of these, the Ladies' Flower Mission has helped 95 cases; the Sadd Mission, 33; the Woman's Christian Temperance Union, 25; churches, 88; the city, 44; benevolent individuals, 93; and 64 have been helped by finding employment for them. We have had 621 applications in the past seven months: of these, 398 are recorded. Of those recorded, 134 are males and 264 females (374 white and 24 colored): 21 cases were wives deserted by their husbands. The whole number of persons included in the families represented was 1,337. The number of visits made by the two agents was 2,075. We have 30 lady visitors, but do not know how many visits they have made. We have scattered all over our city pads of little yellow tickets, headed, "Give nothing to beggars." And whenever a beggar goes along our principal streets, from door to door, all he gets is a ticket, which requires him to go to one of our offices for investigation. And, of the hundreds and hundreds of tickets given out by our merchants and others, not over five per cent. come back to the office. We have cut down street begging in a little over three months fully seventy-five per cent. Over two hundred beggars have been driven from our streets, who averaged \$1 per day, thus saving to our citizens in money over \$70,000 a year. Nor does the good work of the ticket stop here; for, on finding that they only got a ticket wherever they went (on which they did not get very fat), many have been forced to seek legitimate employment, while the regular professionals have been forced to leave the city. This portion of the work of the "yellow ticket," in a moral point of view, cannot be estimated by dollars and cents.

MR. JOHNSON.—I would like to say a word or two in answer to Mr. Wines' question, as far as it regards the Chicago society that he mentions. I should say, if it is doing all it claims, that it might change its name, and be at once admitted to full fellowship. If a society is doing the work of charity organization, by all means let it go on. "That which is not against us is for us."

It seems to me that in our discussion to-night the *positive* part of our work is being overlooked. This *negative* work, this detection of fraud, this driving people away, is not all. Our positive work is to lift up, to reclaim, this poor, weak, erring humanity; and our chief inducement to begin the work, and our sustaining hope in continuing it, come from the fact that we believe this positive work can be, to some degree, accomplished. Our societies aim to repress, but also to cure pauperism. We cannot do this by driving people away.

The only way to redeem a man is to *get to him*. If he has fallen in the mud, and is too weak to hold on to a rope, we must even get down into the mud and lift him up bodily. We who are on our feet on firm ground owe this duty to our weaker or less fortunate brother; and this duty needs, in addition to all the investigation, etc., *personal devotion*. Let no man put his hand to this work without some measure of devotion. Personal influence is the key-note of our system on its positive side. I don't care how it is carried into effect. The

methods are many. Every case is a problem unlike in some respects every other, and must be considered by itself. The one thing needful is *devotion*.

Mr. EMERY thought one question which he touched upon in his report had not been sufficiently impressed. In Washington as well as in other places of about the same latitude, there is an element of the population educated toward pauperism, of which people are generally unconscious. They are the children of those persons who now, perhaps, live in luxury. They are so indulged that they are taught to look upon labor as disgraceful. The education of girls and boys to do something that is useful is so essential that, if it is not encouraged, there will be a vast increase in pauperism. As for different societies existing in a place, each attempting to organize charity, they may be unnecessary; but there is not so much objection to that, if they co-operate. The idea is to get at the exact information, so as to look into the homes of the really suffering, and be able properly to relieve that suffering without degrading the sufferer.

Mr. BARBOUR.—Any city that has not a charity organization is laboring under a very great disadvantage in comparison with the other cities of the land that have. When it is known that a city has such an organization, that knowledge runs through the land from Maine to Chicago; and it turns from those cities the stream of tramps and frauds. They go to cities having no such organizations. New Orleans has in this way scattered its beggars, New York has scattered its beggars, and Philadelphia has done the same; but they will assemble in the cities which have no such organizations. I fancy that St. Louis has discovered that it has more beggars than it had ten years ago. They are more numerous on the streets and in the almshouses. The only salvation for cities in this respect is to organize their charities.

The very proper question that follows is, How can such an organization be formed? It may be formed by two men or by a dozen. It may be formed by a meeting for that purpose, asking all the churches and all the charities to send at least a delegate, and, when they are gathered together, simply adopting a constitution. No matter if only two are present. That was practically done in one city to my knowledge. A committee was sent to Buffalo to examine the organization there. They came home, and prepared an elaborate report. The report was read to only a few people; but an enthusiastic account of the meeting was published in the morning papers, and many who read it were sorry they were not there, and determined to go next time. When the constitution was adopted, a respectable number was present; and the organization is now doing good work.

Mr. GARRETT.—I was at the christening of the first charity organization society of this country. It was called a Relief Society. It is not necessary, to be a charity organization society, that it should be called by that name; but I do think the point is vital that Mr. Short dwells upon. That is the most essential feature. I cannot illustrate what I mean to say better than by imagining

the case of the Provident Association of St. Louis. If that society were to be coterminous with the city, so that the administration of its relief absolutely covered the whole city, then, if it were to adopt these principles,—that employment must be made the basis of relief; that no relief except temporary relief must be given where the family or individual can be elevated to take care of itself, himself, or herself; that the fundamental principle must be to give relief only when absolutely necessary,—then, if that society should make an accurate registration of every case over the whole city, so that every person, every church, every relief association, should be able to come to it and learn whether a certain individual is helped from any source,—such a society would seem to embody the essential elements of a charity organization society. Such a society is a charity organization society, whatever it is called. The best way in which to organize in a large city is to associate those societies already existing, when this can be done. But, in some cases, it is necessary first to form an association for this specific purpose, and then ask all the relief societies to co-operate with it. In London, great difficulty has been experienced, because so many of the old societies were determined to administer their funds in certain ways, and legally bound to in the case of bequests and other trusts. But it is gratifying to see that in the new cities of the West, where there is no such difficulty, it is comparatively easy, and that the system is spreading with great facility.

Mr. BONSALL.—Charity organization in Philadelphia has thoroughly eradicated out-door relief. A friend related to me that in his experience, during the time he had been city visitor, he had administered city relief to three generations—grandmother, mother, and daughter—continuously. We have had a great many settle down as paupers, because they were helped continuously by the city. We must make them go to work, and let them know that we give nothing for nothing, except that which is needed to remove instant necessity.

Dr. DUTTON.—In all our charities and benevolent work, we should have special regard to the sensitiveness of man to his own manhood, and give nothing in such a way as to kill out this sensitiveness. This principle is often overlooked. For instance, the infirmary department of some cities, or some provident association, will send out wagons to deliver fuel, with the name "Infirmary" or "Provident Association" prominently displayed on them. When these wagons stop before the doors of the poor, they thus *publicly advertise* the fact that those who receive help from them are poor, and are being charitably aided. Families so helped at first feel mortified, but soon become indifferent to their own poverty, are willing to be aided, and, having lost their sensitiveness and self-respect by the very manner in which they have been aided, become public paupers, and feel that outside aid is really due them. Thus, man loses his sensitiveness to his own manhood. Charity should be unostentatious. The basis of "charity organization" is such that, in the exercise of its benevolence, it preserves the self-respect of all recipients of aid.

Mr. FAIRCHILD.—I trust that those who wished for information and ideas have gained some from this discussion. If it has given food for thought, it is, perhaps, all that we could ask. To those who are thinking of organizing a society, I would say: Whatever defects you may think need to be remedied, those defects have probably been found somewhere else, and some attempt has been made to remedy them. Before you attempt to do anything, try to find out whether some one else has thought of the same thing and tried to remedy it, and give yourself the benefit of their experience before you begin. It will save you a great deal of trouble.

Mr. Fairchild was asked to give the names of books or writings to be consulted on the subject, and mentioned the following:—

Handbook of Charity Organization. By Rev. S. Humphreys Gurteen. Publications of the Associated Charities of Boston.

How to Help the Poor. By Mrs. J. T. Fields.

Wisdom in Charities. By C. G. Ames.

First and Second Annual Reports of the Newport Charity Organization Society.

Fourth Annual Report of the Associated Charities of Boston.

The Importance of Uniting Individual and Associated Volunteer Effort in Behalf of the Poor. Publication No. 18 of State Charities Aid Association, New York City.

Method in Almsgiving. By N. M. Moggridge.

Letters of Edward Denison.

Monthly Register. Philadelphia.

Public Relief and Private Charity. By Mrs. C. R. Lowell.

Mr. FAIRCHILD closed the discussion by citing an illustration showing the practical working of the Charity Organization Society in New York. One old woman was supported, it was found, by eleven different societies and by what she begged from the merchants. Even this was a scanty and insufficient support for herself and grandson. The officers of the Charity Organization Society went to these societies, and said: This woman is not properly treated. We propose to do one of two things: place the mother in an almshouse and the boy in an institution; or, if several of you will combine and say that you will contribute so much regularly every month, we will find some one to supervise and be the friend of the woman and the boy. Four societies and one church agreed, the sum contributed amounting to \$19 a month. The other societies were requested to stop giving, and the society promised that the woman should beg no more. A gentleman watches the boy's education, and gives him enough employment to earn five dollars a month, and promises some day to take him into his office and make a useful man of him. The old woman—she is more than seventy—has been made comfortable, and the boy is saved

from being made a pauper. The seven societies have been saved the expense of giving, and the whole is due to charity organization. Fraud was not detected in this case ; but a sufficient and decent support was secured to a woman who needed charity, and a little boy saved from ruin, which was coming, not from imposture, but from the irregular and insufficient doles of societies that did not work together.

Adjourned.

FIFTH SESSION.

Wednesday morning, Oct. 15.

The Conference met at 9.30 A.M. Prayer was offered by Rev. J. L. Milligan.

The President announced that the first half-hour of the session would be devoted to obituary notices of members of the Conference who had died during the past year.

The following remarks were then made by the Rt. Rev. GEORGE D. GILLESPIE, of Michigan :—

Since the last Conference, Mr. William G. Dewing, of Michigan, has departed this life. He had always attended our meetings, and no one brought a deeper interest. Mr. Dewing was most decidedly the friend of children, and, in connection with his excellent wife, established, in one of our most beautiful Michigan cities, a children's home, which has been exceedingly useful in caring for neglected little ones. On his decease, he made provision for the continuance of that institution and for the erection of a building, which has been commenced. He was averse to the separation of parents and children. The last time I was with our friend it was while visiting this institution, and I can but recall his interest in the children and their manifest affection for him. I am glad to notice our departed friend and his work, because I fear one of our dangers lies in losing sight of the obligation of individuals, and forgetting the commendation of our blessed Lord, "I was a stranger, and ye took me in ; sick, and ye visited me,"—not "ye *sent* me," or "ye sent to me," but "ye took me in, ye visited me." I think the name of William G. Dewing is well worthy of being entered on our records, as I am persuaded it is written in heaven.

The President asked if Bishop Gillespie would like to offer any resolutions on the subject. Bishop Gillespie replied that he merely wished to have a note of Mr. Dewing's death made in the minutes, and it was so ordered.

Mr. Grimshaw reported for the State of Illinois (page 27).

The President read several letters from persons regretting their inability to attend the Conference, among others from Mr. F. B. San-

born of Massachusetts, Rev. Charles H. Bond of Connecticut, Mr. W. G. Fairbank of Vermont, and Dr. Charles E. Cadwalader.

Mr. Elmore offered the following resolution, which was unanimously adopted:—

Resolved, That suitable portraits of our last President, Rev. Fred. H. Wines, and of our present President, Hon. W. P. Letchworth, be procured by the Publishing Committee, and bound in the Proceedings of the Eleventh National Conference of Charities and Correction.

Hon. A. E. Elmore, chairman of the Committee on Reformatories and Houses of Refuge, made his report (page 84).

On motion, the papers of W. G. Fairbank of Vermont, on Discipline in Reformatories (page 100), and of Charles Reemelin of Ohio, on the Administration of Reformatories (page 92), were referred to the Publishing Committee, without reading.

A paper by P. H. Lavery, of New Jersey, on the Management of Reformatories, was read by Mr. Anderson (page 87).

Mr. WINES said that the Superintendent of the Illinois State Reform School, Dr. J. D. Scouller, who was present, had with him a very interesting paper, which he (Mr. Wines) thought that the Conference would like to hear. Dr. Scouller had been in this work for many years, and could speak from practical experience. He hoped that Dr. Scouller would be requested to read it.

Mr. WRIGHT.—Has it been through the hands of the proper Committee?

Mr. WINES.—I do not know, but I will be responsible for it.

Mr. ELMORE.—The Conference has supreme control over these things. If it thinks this paper of interest, and I should judge it might be, it has it in its power to do what it pleases about hearing it.

Mr. BARBOUR.—I move that half an hour be devoted to the reading of the paper by Dr. Scouller.

The motion was unanimously carried, and a paper was read by Dr. Scouller, entitled "Can we Save the Boys?" (page 102.)

The discussion of the subject of Reformatories and Houses of Refuge was opened by Mr. Amos Bonsall, of Philadelphia.

Mr. BONSTALL.—The question of the reformation of youth is one in many respects alike the world over. No man, in my estimation, is fitted to undertake such work, unless he, like Dr. Scouller, loves the boy and the girl who have gone astray, and not only loves them, but feels a sympathy with them, and is willing to stoop to them to lift them from their condition. Erring children are amenable to help. Dr. Scouller has divided children into three classes. The first class is not worth a great deal, under any circumstances. They are born,

vegetate, die, and are gone, and leave no sign. But the forcible energy that drives a boy of the second class into experiment and venture, and the possession of which will lead him, if it is not checked and guided, into crime, is the very power by which we can reach him and do him good. Such boys make energetic and excellent citizens.

Why do so many of our children in the great cities need the protection which they will only get in reformatories? They have fallen, smirched with crime. They are not lost, but are soiled with contact with the earth. Most of our friends and fellow-citizens look askance at them, and hold their pockets as they pass them by. They become restive under the slightest restraint, but the fault lies back of that. In eighty out of a hundred cases, when we inquire into the antecedents of these children, we find that they have been born on the borders of crime or trenching closely upon it. They have probably committed some minor offence at an early age. Their parents have encouraged them in little tricks. "Tom is a very bright boy. He pitches pennies, and always gets the best. He always wins at marbles. He is always ready to pick up things. He is a very bright boy, and I think he will be a smart man." That is the feeling, and the boy is encouraged in minor crime. This results almost inevitably, sooner or later, in resistance to such parental authority. They lose the respect that they should feel toward parents. They strike their mothers. They run away from their homes. They stay out all night. They play truant at school. And, finally, they get into the reformatory.

Now, what are we to do with these boys? Are we to go on on the old moral lecture system,—talk to them, entreat them, pray for them? Yes. All these things are good. But these are not all. We are to show these children that they have something within them that will help them to do better. I would rather fail a thousand times in my word to men than to fail in one jot or tittle to my boys, because the older person may understand reasons for failure.

The law in Pennsylvania has some advantages over other States in the manner of committing children to reformatory institutions. In a law passed in 1826, we find that children, or infants, may be

Committed by an alderman or justice of the peace, on the complaint and due proof made to him, by the parent, guardian, or next friend of such infant, that, by reason of incorrigible or vicious conduct, such infant has rendered his or her control beyond the power of such parent, guardian, or next friend, and made it manifestly requisite that, from regard for the morals and future welfare of such infant, he or she should be placed under the guardianship of the managers of the House of Refuge.

Thus, a parent who has an incorrigible child has the privilege of appearing before a magistrate and making oath to the fact that the child is beyond control; and it can then be committed to the guardianship of the managers of the House of Refuge, the boys up to the age of twenty-one and the girls to the age of eighteen. That makes, under the law, the managers of the House of Refuge the sole arbiters as to the care of the child. They have the sole power of discharge,

except under the *habeas corpus* act, which stands beyond all these laws. It is a good law, and to be commended.

Dr. VIVIAN.—They have been doing that in Kentucky for twenty years. It is also done in Wisconsin.

Dr. RHELDADDER.—Some mines from which men dig gold yield a large amount to the ton, others hardly pay for the extraction; and we expect the man who works the good mine to get more out of it than the man who works the poor one. The third class of boys, of whom Dr. Scouller speaks, are the poor mine. They make up the class that, if there were no reform schools, would make our criminals; and, if reform schools do save a part of this class, then they do a good work.

We believe, in our management of reform schools in Minnesota, that to make money is not the business of a reform school. We try to employ our boys, and are compelled to employ them, in such a way as will be advantageous to themselves. So far as we can turn that to profit, we are glad to make for the State all the money we can; but, if we cannot make a dollar, if we can teach the boys how to make useful citizens, we are satisfied. If the State takes boys and girls and restrains them in a reform school from the age of ten to twenty-one, then the State is bound to give them the privileges of education, *compulsory education*. Many are boys who would not go to public school; and no arrangement should be made by which boys shall be compelled to work almost all the hours of the day to make money for the State, and have their education crowded into the morning before breakfast or the evening after supper. The State is surely able to get along without enslaving any of its children and setting them to making money as a prime object.

Another thing, I think there are some things in our reform schools that are degrading. I would like to try the experiment of relieving boys from all domestic labor in the kitchen, which in the family is usually performed by female servants, and done much better by them.

I would ask whether it would not pay to take the boys out of the kitchen and out of employment that leads them into temptation, as in care of officers' rooms, and put them at some more profitable work, and hire this other work done by servants, as we do in our own households. There is something in the fact that you must have a boy clean, as a first step toward elevating him; but, if you go into a kitchen where boys are scrubbing floors, washing dishes, and paring potatoes, you will not find them clean. I once heard a governor say that a man cannot make a good speech with *soggy* boots on. There is nothing degrading in washing dishes, if you put the person at it to whom it belongs; but I do not think it is an elevating exercise or one that will cultivate the self-respect of a boy.

But my greatest objection to the employment of boys at domestic work arises from two considerations: first, the character of the boys who are proper subjects for a reform school; and, second, the fact

that it is so difficult to find girls or women to place in charge of the various departments of domestic labor, fitted to exercise a proper discipline over the boys under their charge while at work.

Mr. INGERSOLL.—In our reform school in Minnesota, we have a school without walls and have no cells to lock boys in. We have shops to teach the boys trades. Every boy goes to school half a day, so that they get a very fair education. Boys are sent there, not for any specific time, but until the board believes they are fit to go out. We have little difficulty in getting employment for them when they go out. I never found a man who was not willing to take them. We have a farm of sixty acres, and the boys work on the grounds. In summer, we march them out in military order and have them encamp for a week, in tents, by a beautiful lake, where they have grand times,—boating, fishing, and bathing,—and come home feeling a great deal better for it. Our average number is about one hundred and twenty.

Mr. CHIDLAW.—Our institution, near Lancaster, Ohio, was founded about twenty-six years ago on the family plan. Our first aim was to provide for our five hundred boys a good home, to make them feel that they were among friends. I recall one boy who came to us one morning. He had had no breakfast. I took him to the kitchen and extemporized a breakfast, which he devoured. I then asked if he would take a walk, and I showed him our large shop and chapel. After looking at the various buildings, he exclaimed, "Say, mister, haven't you got a thundering big jail here?" "No," I said: "we have a chamber of reflection, but no jail." I found he had been in the jails of Buffalo, Cleveland, Toledo, and Dayton; and it was quite a new experience to him to find that we had none. In the evening, I went to the house where he was to stay. He had been washed and dressed in clean clothes. There were about forty boys in the family. I could not pick him out. I asked for the boy who came in the morning. He stepped out, clothed, and apparently in his right mind. "How do you like it?" I asked. "O mister," he replied, "I never had such a home before."

If, in our reformatories, we can get a boy to feel that he is with friends, we have got a starting-point from which, by the blessing of God and by human skill and faithfulness, we may send out a reformed boy in very many instances. Some of the boys do not appreciate the home we provide, and some run away; but, when they are brought back, they are more content. These boys have a great deal of evil to be eradicated; but there is good soil in them, too, where good seed can be planted. In my garden there was a spot where weeds always grew,—an eyesore to me and my friends. I hired a man; and he dug it all up, and planted a cherry-tree there. And now, instead of weeds, we have fruit. Our idea is that these boys have a good deal of evil by nature and by practice that we must encounter. We must endeavor to go down to the depths of depravity and evil, and, by the divine remedy that God has revealed and that common sense approves, begin the work of refor-

mation. Very often, I am glad to say, we have evidence of real success. We endeavor to have our boys understand the law of God in its claims and in its penalties, and to believe in the help and power of divine love in saving them. We want, in Ohio, a continued authoritative guardianship over our discharged boys. We want what they have in the grand old Bay State,—a State agent, or an agent to look after every boy, that the good work which we have commenced may be continued. I hope that the voice of this Conference will be that the State owes to its wards, not only a home within its reformatory, but the duty of looking after them when they leave it.

A DELEGATE.—Are your sentences definite or indefinite?

Mr. CHIDLAW.—Indefinite. We only take criminal boys.

Mrs. SPENCER.—I waited for some one else to make a protest, when I heard the eminent gentleman on the other side of the house say that he wanted to see the day when boys would be taken out of the kitchen, made clean, and put at work suitable for them. In 1873, I spent considerable time in visiting public institutions; and I never saw cleaner kitchens nor boys better employed than in reformatories where they were at work preparing sweet, wholesome food, polishing floors, and doing their share toward making home comfortable and beautiful. I believe we should have happier firesides, if boys were trained to take care of the home. As it is, they love to go on the streets. It is a terrible mistake to teach them to despise the work of home. When we have taught boys who are not yet criminals that it takes two people to make a home, a man and a woman, and that it is only half made when one takes care of it alone, we have given a lesson that may prevent the necessity of reform schools.

Mrs. HOBBS.—With all due respect for what the gentleman has said on his side of the question, it must still be maintained that there is *another side*; and I will speak from the mother's experience. I have never seen the time when it was not well that boys should be taught to do helpful things about the house,—to wash dishes, pare potatoes, and make and keep the kitchen tidy. It can be done as well by boys as by girls. Many of these boys have no homes; and, when they go out into the world, they are often brought into situations where they need to do these things. I know now of respectable young men who are doing their own cooking, in order to get an education, because they have not the means to buy their food already cooked. Then, again, it is a good thing for these boys to learn to do such work; for, frequently, they find situations in hotels and restaurants as cooks or helpers, where their early experience proves to be a source of profit. And I heartily approve of their being taught to sew as well, so that, if need be, they could mend a rent in their clothes, repair their socks, or sew on buttons. In some of the industrial schools in Chicago, boys are taught to sew; and, while I believe every boy should have a trade, I think they should also learn to be useful in the home, whether as children or husbands.

Dr. RIHELDAFFER.—I only asked for information, whether the change would not be a good thing; and the ladies are giving it to me

fast enough. The trouble is that, when parents come to visit their boys, they are dissatisfied if they find them working in the kitchen instead of learning a trade. They say it is well enough for them to do that at home, but they don't want it done in the schools.

Mrs. D'ARCAMBAL.—I want to protest against women being put into reformatory institutions for boys, to do their work. Since 1868, I have been visiting jails and prisons; and I know what it is to go into these institutions and see boys scrubbing and cooking and learning how to make themselves useful. And I have seen boys come out and go into restaurants, and into good places in private families, where they could support themselves and make honorable men, exercising the obedience to rules which they had learned in the reformatory kitchen. Our reformatories are a pride to our State of Michigan, but I hope in none of these shall we ever see women doing the work for men and boys. And I earnestly pray that no man shall have a place in a reformatory for women and girls.

Mrs. HOFFMAN.—The gentleman seemed to imply that any kind of labor could be degrading, and that especially a boy might feel degraded by doing the work of a girl. There is too much of that feeling already in the world. Labor is ennobling; and the boy who goes down and scrubs the floor is no more degraded than is the woman who gives her honest, unremitting toil—to support her husband, if occasion require.

Mr. WRIGHT.—Turn about is fair play. If the boys are to work in the kitchen, I would suggest that the girls should do the farm-work.

Mrs. WARNER.—I think that suggestion is admirable. I know a great number of girls and women who are doing farm-work, raising fruit, etc., and making a handsome business of it. I think it is a mistake to put dependent and incorrigible girls and boys together in the same institution. I would have industrial education for boys and girls who are in our public schools throughout the country, as well as in reform schools. I would teach girls to work on farms, to do gardening, to raise flowers and fruit: it is better for them. And I would teach the boys to help their mothers and sisters in all domestic labor, and learn how to do such work, if necessary, for their wives. It is not degrading. It is honorable. That is the principle to introduce in all our institutions,—that it is honorable to earn honest wages, for both boys and girls. Usually, in reformatory institutions, boys and girls both do scrubbing, but the boys, in addition, are taught a trade; while as a general thing, the girls are taught nothing else, and go on scrubbing all their lives. I think that we make a mistake in this. The object of our reform schools should be *formation* instead of *reformation*. There is no place in the whole State of Illinois for boys who are not criminals. What we want is institutions in the different States that will take children tending toward crime, and train them up and give them an industrial education and an opportunity to escape from crime.

Mrs. SPERRY.—I am disappointed in not hearing more about schools for girls, and hope we may do so yet. We have no reform school for girls in Colorado, and in the industrial school they refuse to take them.

Miss PUTNAM.—I want to extend an invitation to all the delegates and to all those interested to come to the Monson State Primary School and to the State Industrial School at Lancaster, Mass. I think they will find the problem solved. The boys as well as girls at Monson help in the housework, and are marked for that work as well as for their lessons. At the Lancaster Industrial School, the girls work on the farm, weeding squashes, digging potatoes, etc. They enjoy it, and look forward to it with great pleasure. The outdoor work breaks up the monotony of the day. They have no sense of degradation in doing it, and they look much happier and better than when kept at housework all the time.

Dr. BYERS.—I wish to ask Dr. Scouller upon what he bases his percentage of children that come from respectable families. I think he said forty per cent. I want to know his data for that estimate, because, to my own mind, it is not possible that good homes can turn out bad boys. We relegate our children to the churches and schools; but before the church and school comes the divine institution of the family, and there the foundation of character is made. And I do not want to have any reflection on the good home-training of boys.

Dr. SCOLLER.—The figures are taken from our history of every boy that comes into the institution.

Mr. ELMORE stated that he had received a communication from Mr. Gardner Tufts of Massachusetts on Reformatories. On motion of Dr. Byers, it was referred to the Publishing Committee, without reading.

Adjourned.

SIXTH SESSION.

Wednesday afternoon, Oct. 15.

The Conference met at 2.30 P.M. The President read several letters expressing great interest of the writers in the work of the Conference and regret at inability to be present. Among these was one from Mrs. Emily Huntington of the Wilson School, New York, announcing the success of kitchen garden in that school, and that cooking is to be taught as a sequel to kitchen garden. Miss Louise J. Kirkwood, also of the Wilson School, called attention to the necessity of teaching sewing in schools. Her own method she had embodied in a Sewing Primer.

A communication was also read from Miss M. O. Dix, the head of the Red-Cross Association of Missouri, who was very active in her efforts the past summer in alleviating the distress of the people from

the overflow of the Mississippi Valley. A gift of flowers for the speaker's stand accompanied Miss Dix's note.

The President called attention to the fact that the decoration of the hall with plants and flowers, by the ladies of the Fruit and Flower Mission, was intended as a token of sympathy with those engaged in child-saving work.

Miss Putnam moved a vote of thanks to the ladies who had contributed the flowers, which was unanimously passed.

Twenty-five little girls from the Industrial Home of St. Louis were present at the opening of the session, in charge of the matron and a teacher. They sang several hymns in a pleasing manner, and repeated the twenty-third psalm in unison.

Captain Bent, in behalf of the Local Committee, invited the members of the Conference to witness an illumination of some of the principal streets of the city in the evening. The illumination was to be in honor of the Conference of Charities and Correction and of the American Public Health Association. Carriages would be in waiting at the Lindell Hotel at seven o'clock, to take the members of the Conference through the streets, that they might see the display. The Board of Directors of the St. Louis Exposition had also kindly invited the Conference to visit the Exposition, after the illumination. The carriages would be at the disposal of the members during the evening. He hoped the Conference would be willing to accept these invitations.

On motion of Mr. Anderson, the invitations were accepted, with thanks.

On motion of Mr. Scarborough, it was voted that the afternoon session should be extended to 6.30 P.M., since there could be no evening session.

On motion of Mr. Randall, it was voted that the papers which were to have been read in the evening should be referred to the Committee on Publication. The following are the titles of the papers thus referred:—

"Industrial and Technological Training," by Sarah Sands Paddock, of New York (page 207); "The Abandonment of Children," by Doña Concepcion Arenal, of Spain (page 165); "The Guardianship of Minors in Poland," by Judge Alexandre de Moldenhauer (page 177); "Reformatories for Youth in Sweden," by M. Almquist, of Sweden (page 190); "The Treatment of Juvenile Offenders," by Arthur J. Maddison, of England (page 195); "Child-saving Work in England," by T. B. Ll. Baker, Esq., of England (page 200).

President LETCHWORTH called attention to the fact that, in accordance with a resolution adopted by the Tenth National Conference of Charities and Correction, he was to have completed and reported to this Conference the results of an inquiry into the extent, character, and needs of child-saving and preventive work. But, though diligent in the work, he had been unsuccessful in collecting all the material needed for a comprehensive exposition of the subject. The facts and statistics already secured were, however, valuable; and he hoped they might be utilized in the work of future Conferences.

Hon. C. D. Randall, of Michigan, chairman of the Standing Committee on Child-saving Work, presented the report of that committee (page 115).

Miss Elizabeth C. Putnam, of Boston, read a paper on "Auxiliary Visitors" (page 123).

Prof. John N. Foster read a paper on "Ten Years of Child-saving Work in Michigan" (page 132).

A paper on "Placing Out Children in the West" was then read by the Rev. H. H. Hart, of Minnesota (page 143).

A paper by Charles Loring Brace, of New York, on "Child-saving as shown in Summer Homes and Sanitaria near Large Cities," was read by J. W. Skinner (page 150).

A paper on "The Catholic Charities of St. Louis" was read by Peter L. Foy, of St. Louis (page 159).

DISCUSSION.

Mrs. CLARA BARNARD, secretary of the Girls' Industrial Home, St. Louis, who was invited to speak of that institution, said that in the thirty-one years of its existence they had taken care of about five thousand children. The girls are fed, clothed, educated, and put into good families as fast as possible. Some of the children are adopted. They are mostly orphans or half-orphans. The aim is to teach them to be self-supporting and to keep them from crime.

The expenses average \$60.66 per year for each child. The right is reserved of recalling the children at any time, for proper reasons, after they have been placed in families. The Home is out of debt, and has a fund of about forty-five thousand dollars. It was the pioneer institution of St. Louis; and since its foundation, and since kindred institutions have been established, little helpless and neglected children are much better cared for. One never sees a beggar girl in the streets now.

A DELEGATE.—Is it a sectarian institution?

Mrs. BARNARD.—No.: through all these thirty-one years, Protestant ladies of every class and every denomination have worked together, hand to hand and heart to heart, harmoniously.

Q.—How is it supported?

Mrs. BARNARD.—By voluntary subscriptions, and partly by the hard work of the managers, in fairs, festivals, and the like.

Mr. RANDALL.—We have an act upon our statute-books, not original with us, which took effect in 1883, that excludes every child admissible to the public schools from the poorhouses of the State. That was first enacted in the State of New York. A similar statute took effect in Pennsylvania last January, and we hope the time will come when every State will adopt it. For that law, we are indebted to William P. Letchworth, our honored and able President.

Mrs. HOFFMAN.—I believe that formation work is more important than reformation. We shall never do effective work until we come down to the fact that we must keep children from growing up to be criminals. Children should be taken before they reach the school age and trained in kindergartens, and kept off from the streets. I beg that you will pass strong resolutions concerning kindergarten schools. They ought, in my opinion, to be national schools, or the nation will go down in darkness under the criminal classes. The child taken at three years of age is clay in the hands: it can be moulded and fashioned at the will of the potter. But leave it till the school-house door is opened to it, and it is no wonder that we must have reformatory institutions all over the land, that we have such cases as come all the time under our notice. We have a newsboys' night school in Kansas City, where even hoodlums may come in, if they choose. It is under the auspices of the Woman's Christian Temperance Union; but every boy drinks, smokes, swears, lies, and steals. That is the character of these boys. How hard is the work of reformation here!

Mr. MATTHEWS thanked Mr. Hart for the excellent and kindly criticism of the work of the Children's Aid Society. The society is open to conviction and amendment. He referred to the placing of children in Minnesota, of which Mr. Hart had spoken, and said that, although some of them were placed in small homes, they were put with people with big hearts. He was ready to pledge the Conference that matters needing correction should be corrected.

Mrs. M. E. R. Cobb was asked to speak of the Industrial School for Girls at Milwaukee.

Mrs. COBB.—The Wisconsin Industrial School for Girls is now about nine years of age. It was started originally by a few benevolent ladies of all churches and no church, combining, to keep children from the streets. Although it is called the Industrial School for Girls, about one-fifth of its inmates have been boys from three to eleven or twelve years of age. To-day, with one hundred and sixty-five children, we have thirty boys. These young boys are supposed by most people to be better off there than in the boys' school at Waukesha, and those going before the courts under ten are sent to us. There is no limit in age for either sex downward, and we have received infants two weeks old. So, in calling our schools re-

formatory, we are using the word *re-form* in its widest sense. Most of these children are the children of dissolute parents. We sometimes help destitute and worthy people by temporary care of their children; but those committed to us are, if not themselves offenders, mostly the children of delinquent and wicked parents on one side or the other, or both. We have had about four hundred and sixty-five children in the school, and have placed about three hundred out of the school. Of the first hundred sent to the school, we have only *three* left in it. Thirty-three per cent. were returned to their friends or relatives, and many of those have been lost sight of. Thirty-eight per cent. who were placed in homes are doing well; and only four, of the first one hundred, are known to be doing badly. The second hundred has a larger percentage of those known to be doing well, and only eleven of this second hundred are yet in the school. We have had only about sixteen come of age. So over two hundred minors, outside the school, are yet under our care; and ninety per cent. of them are doing well. As the school stands to-day, we have it classified into three families. The children from three to eleven are in one family, composed of all the boys and about twenty little girls. Those between eleven and fourteen or fifteen make another, our largest, or main, family, numbering over seventy. Then we have a family of still older girls, about forty in number. These all meet for morning prayers in the general school-room. Each family is under the care of a matron and a teacher, so that each family is complete in itself. We have, for our twenty-five youngest children, a well appointed kindergarten, whose work at Madison last summer was said to compare favorably with others. Above that, we have in the work of our Children's Home a kitchen garden, which is a connecting branch with our real, heavy work, which is all done by the inmates. All the work is done under teachers and in classes, which are changed quarterly, so that a girl every year is taught in four different departments of work. They begin with making their own beds, and so go on to the hardest and highest work. We also do creditable laundry work and custom sewing for our best families,—not shop work, but the best sewing at the best prices. Our girls are trained for domestic service and home-making, but they have done a great deal of outdoor work. They do less of it now, because they have so much indoor employment; but, in the earlier years, we took care of our own cows, pigs, and horse, and of the grounds. For four years there was not a man on the place. We even made our own wire fences the first year I was there. We are more and more applying approved principles of manual training to our industrial work. There is a wide field for industrial reform schools; and we hope to extend our own work during the present year, and always to keep pace with the ideas of the day, especially as to the importance of correct training in manual work.

In Wisconsin, too, we have the law allowing no school child to be kept in the poorhouses; and we have received these children from

almshouses by commitment through county courts and superintendents of the poor. We have, in this way, received a number of half-idiotic children. The latter we have placed in the kindergarten, and they have developed wonderfully. It seems to me that in kindergarten methods and suitable schools of work for idiots and imbeciles the key to their education will be found. One idiotic child that had been with us two years was given the care of one just received, and told that she must teach her, as she had been taught. It was a touching sight to see her leading the new-comer about and instructing her, when she herself, two years before, could not go upstairs or walk or feed or dress herself without assistance.

I believe that we must not only adopt the best methods of the day in literary and industrial work, but also in all ways possible secure such knowledge and appreciation from the public as will tend to elevate our schools, so that the day may come when the children adopted by the State shall be considered just as good as yours or mine, in the eye of the world, until they have done something wrong after leaving the institution. If they are to be branded through life with the fact that they have been trained in an institution, we might as well close the institutions.

Q.—Are two classes of children in your school,—those that come voluntarily, and those that come through the courts?

Mrs. COBB.—We have a few that come voluntarily or at the request and expense of parents; but the most of our children, and our most innocent children, come through the courts.

Q.—The court adjudges them criminal before sending them to you?

Mrs. COBB.—What! when sent at two or three years of age? We do not so consider it, although they come through the courts, and so technically as criminals. I wish we might have the law that Connecticut has: that children may be committed to such institutions without a public appearance in court; that a judge "sitting in chambers" may commit them, and by civil rather than criminal process.

Q.—I only wished to know whether you receive them into guardianship, or, as a State reformatory, as children passing under a criminal record.

Mrs. COBB.—They are committed to a board of ladies who *in loco parentis* retain the guardianship until majority, whether they are in or out of school.

Mr. WRIGHT.—A few of these children are committed for criminal acts, but the great majority are committed by the probate judges as homeless children.

Mrs. COBB.—A child cannot now be committed to our school for theft or larceny. They have to change that charge, when such offenses have been committed, to a charge of vagrancy or destitution. This is by an error in revision of our laws, in 1878, which we have not cared to have corrected.

Mr. BAGG.—Are homes speedily found for the children?

Mrs. COBB.—Yes: we have constantly a large number of appli-

cants for children. The homes offered are carefully investigated. Within the last two years, the ladies of the board have invited to join with them in this work other ladies, from each congressional district of the State, whose duty it is to find proper homes for children, supervise them after they are placed in homes, and report to the school,—very much as is done in Massachusetts, except that it is done by the same ladies who control and manage the school work. Many applicants for children are not found acceptable: probably fifty per cent. we would not allow to have them. A great many people who only want cheap help will come to institutions for children. We have two or three little girls who are a test of the statements about wanting children for charitable reasons. One has weak eyes, and one is crippled in her right arm,—both bright, nice children. But no one will take them. I sometimes distrust the unselfishness and even the justice of people, when they are not willing to accept anything but perfection in a child, physical and moral.

Q.—In what way do you secure the care and welfare of the child?

Mrs. COBB.—By close investigation of the home previous to placing out; by plainly written stipulations as to what care, attention, and influences it shall be under, and what clothing, privileges, and schooling it shall receive; and by carefully overseeing the result, through visits and letters.

Mr. GARRETT.—Do you follow the child after it becomes of age?

Mrs. COBB.—Yes: all its life. Several of our girls are well married and bringing up children in well-appointed homes.

Prof. C. M. Woodward was invited to speak of the St. Louis Manual Training School.

Mr. WOODWARD.—The Manual Training School is not a reform school nor a charity; but it is, perhaps, a child-saving institution. The boys are from good families and in good circumstances, but I think that they are well worth saving. And we endeavor to save them from prejudice, from making egregious mistakes in the course of their lives. We do that by educating the whole boy. The methods are suited to boys and to girls; and, therefore, I think the discussion is not out of place here.

The school is for boys from fourteen to seventeen or nineteen. They enter upon examination, and only tolerably bright boys are able to get in. The programme of the day's work is always three hours of recitation of lessons learned at home, one hour of drawing, and two hours of instruction in tools. All this goes on with perfect regularity and system, every step being taken under the care of a competent teacher. We have 213 boys, in divisions of about twenty each, under ten teachers. Some go to the shop from nine to eleven, others from eleven to one, others later. In that way, the boy gets rounded on all sides, and gets used to three methods of expression,—speech, drawing, and tools. That is the whole scheme of the school. Over a hundred boys have been rejected for lack of room. It is the most wholesome, most happy, most hearty and earnest

school that I ever attended. I have taught twenty-five years, and I never had a school so easy to manage, so satisfactory in the spirit and *morale* of the school, or where the boys were so free from little vices. I believe the moral influence of the school is sound from one end to the other. The intellectual progress is entirely satisfactory. Every task during the day is a close and hard intellectual exercise; but no exercise is made long enough to wear on a boy, to discourage him, or to make it distasteful to him. Everything is bright and fresh, and I think that ought to be true in every reform school. There should be nothing of drudgery. It is no more necessary to give disagreeable work than disagreeable food. Intellectual and moral growth, as well as physical, should be pleasurable. I believe these methods are worthy of adoption. I have found among the boys a lack of prejudice against labor, and a feeling that there is no discredit in work, if there is skill with it.

Q.—Who are admitted?

Prof. WOODWARD.—Any boy of good repute who can pass the examinations. It is, however, a very expensive school, the most expensive school in St. Louis: it costs about \$75 a year for each pupil, for instruction and materials. It is about the grade of the high school, lower than the polytechnic school. About three-fourths pay their own tuition. One-fourth are practically admitted free, simply because we have an endowment that admits a certain number.

Q.—Is there any religious instruction?

Prof. WOODWARD.—No definite religious instruction, but thorough moral training from beginning to end.

Miss PUTNAM.—Could this system be adapted to a school for troublesome boys of from twelve to fourteen? Would it be too costly?

Prof. WOODWARD.—I think it would be a good adjunct for any school. It would be admirably adapted for such boys. I am opposed to training boys by making them pay their own way. I am in favor of recognizing the fact that a good school costs money. Our instruction runs into a variety of forms. Our iron work is most elaborate. We have about \$10,000 worth of tools. The wood-working outfit is, however, not expensive.

Q.—How is the school equipped?

Prof. WOODWARD.—The whole school was endowed by the generosity of a few St. Louis men.

Q.—How long is the course?

Prof. WOODWARD.—Three years.

Q.—Would it not be impossible to introduce this system in other schools on account of the difficulty of getting teachers?

Prof. WOODWARD.—That is an evil that corrects itself so soon that I should not consider it a serious obstacle. We are raising our own teachers now. We have graduated two classes of twenty-nine each. About half of these show that they have a strong aptitude for study, because they are now in higher schools. Others are working at manual occupations.

Q.—Do you admit girls?

Prof. WOODWARD.—No: not because we do not believe in this system for girls, but because we have not the facilities.

Judge Ferris, of Tennessee, was asked to speak of his experience in placing children in homes.

Judge FERRIS.—I am the probate judge of my county, and have been for twelve years. When I went into my office, I found a great many children were being neglected. The cholera broke out in 1873; and, in one week, forty children were sent to me to be provided for. I advertised in the papers that I had orphans for whom homes were needed. It was not long before I had more applicants than children; and I worked on that plan till my minutes showed over five hundred adoptions and over thirteen hundred children sent to different counties in Tennessee. I took children from a year old up to fifteen. I have put them in homes in Texas, Arkansas, and Indiana, as well as in Tennessee; and my conviction is that the best place on earth for little children is the home. But I also find that people are very careful about the kind of children they want. As one lady said to me, "I want you to be very particular about the blood." I sent her a child, and I wrote to her about it: "Its eyes are blue, its hair light, and its blood is *red*." People talk about blue blood; but I tell you your best blood will go to destruction, if you do not give it home culture. All that children want is a chance. If you want to strengthen a child's body, you give it something to eat. If you want it to have a kind and loving heart, put it in a home, and give it affection. Put the children under the care of good women, good mothers. A mother's tender care is better than anything else you can give a child. But you must be cautious about the women to whom you let the children go. I often have occasion to say to people who come for children, "I am not furnishing drudges." When they are adopted, the papers must be made secure. One of the children, for whom I found a home where she was legally adopted, has just now inherited estates worth seven or eight thousand dollars. I claim that nobody has a right to take a child from Tennessee without legally adopting it.

How do I know where to find homes? I go all through the State, and I find out the homes. I know the people, and am known by them. I believe if I put a child in a place, and it were treated amiss, I should know it. People are watchful, and will notice these things. Judge Ferris closed by asking whether experience showed that there was any advantage in having the managers of homes for orphans women who had themselves been mothers.

Mrs. SHUNK.—What we most need as a matron in any home is an earnest woman with a warm Christian heart and true missionary spirit. Such a one, through patience and love, will lift the children, and give them a right start in life. We have found these qualities as truly in single women as in married. The Christian home, with culture and fireside love, is the place for the child.

Mrs. BAGG.—The function of an orphan asylum should not be to furnish a permanent retreat for homeless children. It should be simply a clearing-house, a temporary resting-place while waiting for suitable homes to offer for its inmates. Managers and matrons sometimes lose sight of this, and, becoming attached to the children, are loath to part with them, sometimes throwing obstacles in the way of their being placed in homes. I have known boys to be retained in the asylum while serving as cash boys in stores; and, in one or more instances, they continued to live in the asylum while attending the high school. Prolonged stay in an institutional building unfits the child for life in a normal home. Where there are steam-heating, steam-cooking, machines for washing, mangling, sewing, knitting, for cleaning knives and paring potatoes, etc., the child learns little that will be of use in a humble home where these mechanical aids are wanting. It is quite possible for a boy to spend six years in an orphan asylum, and yet not know how to build a fire.

In institutions, everything is done in the large way. Household stores, clothing, and bedding come in by wholesale; and a child who for a few years has been accustomed to see all these will not take kindly to the little economies and small supplies and scanty furniture of the average family.

When large numbers are gathered under one roof, it is common to separate them according to age and sex for easier management. You may see all the four-year-olds in pink aprons in one wing of the building and all the seven-year-olds in blue aprons in another wing, and seldom meeting. This method of assorting and separating is most unnatural. In the family, we find both sexes and various ages, giving and receiving help from each other, and learning in this natural intercourse to get on with their kind. In family life, children come under the needful *fatherly* influence, which is absent from asylum life. In institutions, the children must be handled in masses. Their individuality is not developed; and they tend to come up characterless, inert, and helpless. Where large numbers of children are housed together, vice has its grand opportunity to spread and contaminate the whole number; and the same may be said of disease.

Mrs. SHUNK.—I can sympathize with the remarks about the importance of such children being transferred to homes. It is well that they should be as soon as they are ready to go. Little children can be placed at once in homes, as they readily find an avenue to the heart. Older children need a preparatory work before they are ready for the home. Otherwise, in going out from institutions, they will frequently be returned, and that home may be spoiled for another child. Great discretion is necessary to adapt a child to a home and a home to a child.

Dr. BYERS.—I am convinced, by all that has been said, of one thing that has long been a theory with me: that for every homeless child there is a childless home. I am satisfied that where a man has a heart for this work, and his hands are willing to do it, he will find a place for the child and a child for the place. What

has astonished me is that Judge Ferris could accomplish so much in connection with his other duties.

Judge FERRIS.—My work in this direction has never cost the county a dollar. I do it in various ways. Last year, for instance, when I went to the Methodist conference I took some children with me; and, before the conference was over, those children had good homes, and they are there to-day.

Mrs. WARDNER.—We have an industrial school for girls in Illinois very similar to the one in Milwaukee. The children are committed to the school by the counties, the counties paying ten dollars a month for each child. It is many times considered necessary to keep them in the school long enough to get them under discipline and awaken their moral natures before they are put into homes. Another thing we have found: that children placed in really good homes are sometimes not compatible; but, by changing them to a second or sometimes to a third home, we succeed in giving satisfaction to both family and child. Over three thousand children were sent to Illinois from New York the past year; and I have found, in my capacity of State agent visiting largely throughout the State, that many are not in good homes. One agent is not sufficient to look after all those children, and I hope to be able to soon represent this to the New York society.

We differ from the Wisconsin school in this respect: the State of Wisconsin, besides the counties paying ten dollars a month for the child, has built all their buildings; but our State has in no way assisted us.

As to the question of married or unmarried women being fitted to care for dependent children, we put in charge of the Illinois Industrial School for Girls two maiden ladies, both of them admirable, kind-hearted, motherly women, who did most excellent work; and I think many a woman has a mother's heart who has never known a mother's joy.

The following resolution, presented by Mr. Randall, was unanimously adopted:—

Resolved, That the thanks of this National Conference of Charities and Correction be tendered to the following foreign writers for the able and interesting addresses furnished by them, by request, relating to the subject of abandoned, neglected, and ill-treated children in their several countries; and that this resolution be inserted in full in the Proceedings of the Conference:—

Mme. Concepcion Arenal, of Gijon, Spain; M. Almquist, Sweden; Dr. Alex. de Moldenhauer, Chief Judge of the Court of Warsaw; Arthur J. S. Maddison, Esq., secretary of the Reformatory and Refuge Union, England; T. B. Ll. Baker, Esq., Gloucester, England.

Adjourned.

SEVENTH SESSION.

Thursday morning, Oct. 16.

The Conference met at 9.30 A.M. Prayer was offered by Rev. G. D. Powell.

A paper by Mr. F. B. Sanborn, Inspector of Charities of Massachusetts, on the "Almshouses of New England," was read, in his absence, by Rev. J. L. Milligan (page 300).

Hon. H. H. Giles read the report of the Committee on the Construction and Management of Poorhouses (page 295).

Judge GRIMSHAW expressed the hope that extra copies of Mr. Giles' paper would be printed for distribution.

Mr. WRIGHT said that extra copies of papers might be printed, if there were a publication fund to meet the expense.

Mr. WINES observed that there is nothing more needed by the Conference than a publication fund. He hoped that the Conference would in time so commend itself to men who wish to expend money for the public welfare, that they would be willing to subscribe a publication fund for its use. The Bible Society distributes Bibles, and the Tract Society tracts; but there is in this country no special organization which is prepared to distribute gratuitously information regarding the great practical questions of benevolence. Wealthy men give freely to found institutions which are often not needed, and sometimes an injury rather than a benefit. How much wiser and more practical it would be to devote this money to the establishment of a perpetual agency for the diffusion of knowledge respecting these difficult but important questions,—questions which lie at the foundation of social health and happiness!

Hon. Levi L. Barbour, of Michigan, was asked to give his views with reference to the management of poorhouses.

Mr. BARBOUR.—The first question that should be determined in any county is whether or not it needs a poorhouse at all, or to raise a poor fund. They are not the first things that a county requires; and, so long as it is possible to get on without either, the county is much better off. In the first place, it will not suffer from the incoming of foreign paupers, which is a matter of considerable moment. Then, voluntary charity will do much more than it will when there is a recognized governmental system for relieving the poor. In one of our border counties, on a recent tour visiting poorhouses, I found no appropriation, no poorhouse, no poor-farm for the poor of that county; and yet it was fairly settled for one of the new counties. I asked the superintendent of the poor what they did for a case that required relief. He said: "We have not any. A man must either work or leave. Men who do not work do not come here. If we do find a case that needs relief, the neighbors get together and relieve it."

We are inclined to do too much officially and too little personally. Many cases that really need relief do not come to public view at all. They are the ones that would come least of all under poorhouse jurisdiction. Where there are no poorhouses or poor funds, this class of cases is less likely to be overlooked.

If a poorhouse is needed, as small a one as will meet the demands of the county should be erected. In one county in one State, a year ago, they built a poorhouse which they thought would be sufficient for ten years to come. They only needed to take care of twenty or twenty-five, but they built a house large enough for fifty; and that, as you can imagine, is now nearly full. Therefore, one of the first and greatest questions to be determined is, How large?

Again, who are the proper officers to distribute and take care of the poor fund? They are the superintendents of the poor. The supervisors of the county should, under no circumstances, have anything to do with the distribution or appropriation of the money provided, else the influence of politics or favoritism will always be felt. The supervisor always wants to be re-elected. He plays his cards for that purpose. If one of his neighbors comes to him and says some one wants relief, he is very sure to grant it, and with that object in view.

The appointments of a poorhouse are exceedingly important. There should be, first of all, plenty of water; and that need not be a very expensive thing. Water is cheap. It can be obtained by a tank put in the attic of the house. Connected with that should be a tub or bathing apparatus, so that plenty of water can be used for that purpose. No poorhouse should be without a bath-tub. If I were going to construct a poorhouse, *ab initio*, I would first build a bath-tub; and, if I had any of the appropriation left after providing drainage and ventilation, I would build a poorhouse around it. I would have religious exercises in a poorhouse, and one of the most regular of these should be regular bathing. The inmates should bathe, at least, weekly; although there is nothing that they will kick against so vigorously as a good, honest bath. But, after they can endure a certain amount of cleanliness, you have reached a point where some physical and moral reformation is possible, but not before.

The discipline of a poorhouse should be maintained, and very strict discipline. One of the means which may be resorted to is to restrict the use of tobacco,—if it is not possible to cut it off entirely, as I believe it is; for I do not believe there is any more use in allowing tobacco in a poorhouse than whiskey. But this method may be used where the board has not sufficient moral strength of character to enforce discipline and cleanliness otherwise.

One of the most important things about a poorhouse is a good woman at the head of it. I know of a number where the woman is the man of the house. She attends to everything, and keeps order and discipline. In regard to this matter of discipline, it is important that every one should have something to do; and one of the ways in which that can be brought about is to give every room or ward into

the charge of some person to see that it is kept in order, that each one, when able, makes the bed and does a fair share of the work, and sees that the sick are taken care of. Some one can be found in every poorhouse who would be delighted with this responsibility, and will do it better and better every day. Blackwell's Island has such an arrangement; and every room is in charge of the best woman that can be selected among the inmates for that purpose, and perhaps you will find no institution better taken care of in the whole country. Discipline and order are maintained there.

Judge FERRIS.—I want to describe the first Tennessee poorhouse that I ever saw. I ran on it accidentally: a committee could never have found it. It was hidden away about nine miles from the city. When I saw it, I said, "What is that?" They replied, "It is the poorhouse"; and I replied, "It *is* very poor." The inmates had to go down to the branch to wash. The colored people were in a government barn that was used for a poorhouse. I told them that I was going to have it improved. I went to work; and Christmas morning I got three members of the county court into a hack, and we drove out to see it. They had never seen it before. The newspapers are great ventilators, and they ventilated that poorhouse; and the result of all our efforts has been that we have built a good one at a cost of sixty thousand dollars, on one hundred and sixty-five acres of ground, within three miles of Nashville. We put in a wash-house; and we have soap-works, gardens, and everything of that kind. There are two hundred and fifty-six inmates. A great many are old colored black men and women. We feed and clothe them all, and do not allow anybody to abuse them. We have no soldiers' home; but we admit any man who was a soldier, no matter which side he was on, if he is needy, and take good care of him. Before the war, no negroes were sent to the county poorhouse. The men who owned them took care of them just as they would of their own family. The result was that sometimes the negroes did not like to be put into poorhouses with what they called "poor white trash," but that is all changed to-day. We have a chapel thirty by forty feet, and a sermon every Sunday.

We insist on cleanliness among the inmates. They must go to the bath-house once or twice a week. We have a large wash-house with twenty-two tubs, and the clothes are dried by steam. In our State, we have no inspector for the poor, but grand jurors do it. The grand jurors are charged to visit the poorhouses and jails, and make true and correct reports, and no matter who is the keeper, if they find anything wrong there, to report it; and they generally do. There are some counties still where it would be hard for any grand jurors to find the poorhouse, but we keep ours open to the public.

Mr. Wines submitted a paper, in printed form, entitled "Some Results of the Special Inquiry made in the Tenth Census into the

Number and Condition of the Defective, Dependent, and Delinquent Classes." The paper is printed as an appendix to this volume.

The President stated that the hour had arrived for the consideration of the subject of the Provision for Idiots; and Dr. Isaac N. Kerlin, superintendent of the Pennsylvania Institution for Feeble-minded Children, opened the subject with a paper on "Provision for Idiotic and Feeble-minded Children" (page 246).

Hon. H. M. Greene, superintendent of the Kansas Asylum for Feeble-minded, read a paper on "The Obligation of Civilized Society to Idiotic and Feeble-minded Children" (page 264).

DISCUSSION.

Bishop GILLESPIE.—In Michigan, we design to ask the legislature for an institution for idiots and imbeciles. The first thing is to get them out of our poorhouses. The second point is that there are not only children, but adults; and we want to know whether there would be any objection to something like the cottage system, uniting the children and adults in such an institution, and for the present carrying our institution no farther than to exercise a custodial influence.

Dr. STEWART.—The question proposed by the gentleman, regarding the cottage system, I have no experience with. I do not believe it can be successfully accomplished. My judgment is that such a plan would result only in organizing a large poorhouse or collection of poorhouses. Of course, you can herd all the idiots of your States together, giving them nothing but custodial care; but the main object for which our institutions have been established will be lost,—that is, the lifting up of this unfortunate class to a higher scale of humanity by teaching them such useful arts as they are capable of receiving, thereby rendering them self-supporting and useful citizens.

The Kentucky Institution for Feeble-minded Children is endeavoring to teach its inmates industrial occupations in conjunction with its educational departments; and we believe we are succeeding, to the extent of relieving the State of the care of from fifty to seventy-five per cent. of them, and in this way making room for others. This plan is regarded as *educational*, in the highest sense of the term. The teachers of the industrial departments have their classes, just as do those in the school department. All of the children who are old enough and large enough are sent to the industrial departments in the afternoon of each day, and there they are graded according to capacity. Those of the highest grades are taught the most difficult trades, and so on down, giving the child an occupation in keeping with his intellect.

Dr. BYERS.—Do I understand that you educate them to the capacity of self-support to the extent of fifty or seventy-five per cent.?

Dr. STEWART.—Yes: in my institution, from fifty to seventy-five per cent. can be made self-supporting. The law governing our institution is different from that of any other State. I am not permitted to receive an idiot, in the common acceptance of the term, but only those who can be taught,—that is to say, feeble-minded children; and this will account for the large percentage of children I claim to make self-supporting in our institution.

Dr. KNIGHT.—I would like to ask Dr. Stewart where the pauper idiots of Kentucky are kept, who are not in his institution?

Dr. STEWART.—The State of Kentucky, for many years, has set apart the sum of seventy-five dollars each, for the maintenance of all the pauper idiots of the State; and, under this provision and for this sum, many persons are found who are willing to take them. Even the parents of such frequently apply for and receive the per capita. I do not think it a good plan, and have often stated my objections to it both in my reports and to the legislature. It is simply the custodial plan the gentleman speaks of, and results in nothing but the mere keeping of them, without ameliorating their condition by education.

Mr. WRIGHT.—Under whose supervision is the money paid?

Dr. STEWART.—Under the supervision of the county judge in whose county the idiot may be. He reports to the auditor. The auditor draws his warrant on the State for seventy-five dollars for the benefit of every person who has been adjudged an idiot by the county court. There are about eleven hundred idiots who are supported in this way, at an annual expense to the State of over eighty thousand dollars.

Dr. DOREN.—So far as Ohio is concerned, our institution can properly be termed an industrial school. All classes are admitted; and they are educated, as far as may be, from the beginning. It has been our plan to admit all classes as rapidly as the State would provide for them. We have accommodations now for about seven hundred and fifty. We have always labored most heartily upon the plan outlined in the paper we have heard, wherein it advocates that all classes shall be provided for, and that those capable of improvement shall be improved to the utmost. But, as I said before, the institution is practically an industrial school, developing to the utmost the capacity of the inmates for useful employment and self-care.

In reply to the question asked by Dr. Byers, I will say that I would regard it as exceedingly unwise to establish an institution of custody simply. If the only object is to feed and clothe and care for the inmates, I do not see why that could not be done in the infirmaries or almshouses as well as elsewhere.

Dr. BYERS.—How would you agree with Dr. Kerlin in the plan of the village?

Dr. DOREN.—I have been advocating the proper care of all classes of imbeciles for years; and the report of the Ohio Board of State Charities for the year 1871, of which Dr. Byers was then secretary, contained a plan submitted by myself, with the approval of our Board of Trustees, thoroughly and humanely to accomplish this purpose,

which plan also received the unqualified indorsement and advocacy of the Board of State Charities and its secretary, Dr. Byers, and has had their earnest support ever since.

Dr. BYERS.—Have you introduced the kindergarten?

Dr. DOREN.—It has been employed in the Ohio institution for twenty-five years or more. It is the basis of the teaching of idiots. It has been one of the most beneficent things in Ohio in its influences upon general education, and is now, and always has been, one of the prominent features of our institution. There is no form of idiocy so low that cannot be reached by it. As to the adults, I know there is an effort to remove them from infirmaries; but I believe it is more for the benefit of the infirmaries than for the imbeciles themselves,—simply seeking to relieve the infirmaries of disagreeable inmates.

Bishop GILLESPIE.—What percentage of your imbeciles is utterly incapable of instruction?

Dr. DOREN.—We have never had one child that was incapable of some improvement, no matter how low. We admit all applicants that we have room for, without regard to their condition. The plan is to admit between the ages of six and fifteen. Our institution is a school, however, for the mental and physical training of the class, the beginning to be within the ages mentioned; the end sought being self-support where possible, self-control and self-care, as far as may be, with a view to the utmost development of the individual, the relief of their friends or the public of the burden of their care and support.

Mr. JOHNSON.—If a boy of fifteen was admitted, would you begin with the kindergarten for him?

Dr. DOREN.—We would begin as low as the case required, if it were only to string beads or buttons. We would go on in this way until, finally, we could teach him, if possible, some form of industry. I can say that the results are gratifying; and that, while the proportion of those who are made self-sustaining differs from that of Dr. Stewart's school in Kentucky, I should explain that we are governed by a different law regulating admissions. He is able to select his pupils, hence his large proportion of pupils who are made self-sustaining; and I will add that this discretion given him by law is a wise one in many respects.

Dr. McCOWEN.—In Iowa, three objects are sought in the provisions which are made by the State for the feeble-minded: 1. To provide special methods of instruction in school-room and work-shop for those who are capable of mental improvement; 2. To provide a home for the helpless imbeciles, and relieve society of this burden. 3. To provide a home for adults of this class, where their labor can be directed under skilful managers to relieve the expense of keeping them. Although comparatively in its infancy this school has already shown most gratifying results in the improvement in the personal habits of its inmates, the progress made in their knowledge of school books, and their ability to be trained up to some form of self-support.

ing industry. None have been found incapable of improvement by the methods employed.

Mr. WINES.—The mass of suffering humanity with which we have to deal is regarded from one point of view by the physician, by the philosopher from another, and by the philanthropist from still another. The point of view from which State boards of public charities are compelled to look at it is governmental. What is the responsibility of the government to the unfortunate and the distressed? How shall it discharge its duties? What needs to be done by the legislature and by the executive for their relief? Now, I wish to call attention to the fact that the responsibility of the government is not limited to the inmates of institutions. Of the insane, for instance, one-half of those enumerated in the census are outside of institutions, and of the idiots a very much larger proportion. The proper treatment of the defective and dependent classes in institutions is only a part of the problem with which the government has to deal. We must take a broader view of this question than that which naturally suggests itself to superintendents of institutions, if we are to do our whole duty.

I desire, also, to express the great satisfaction with which I listened to Dr. Kerlin's paper. It seemed to me that he covered the whole ground more fully and with more sympathetic insight than is usual in papers of this character. I thank him for it in the name of every member of the Conference and in the name of every one of the poor, helpless, imbecile creatures in whose behalf he pleads.

Dr. DANA.—It is very difficult to get before the public the kind of information just furnished us in the paper to which we have listened. The youngest institution we have in Minnesota is the School for Imbeciles, presided over by Dr. George Knight, who has a genius for that work. But we find it very difficult to get such information among the families where there are these defective children as will make them willing to send them to this school. Then there is a most discouraging ignorance on the part of the legislature. Popularly speaking, we have not begun to comprehend the magnitude of this subject. There is no romance about it. A great deal needs to be done for this rapidly increasing class, especially in our newer States. We ought, in Minnesota, to enlarge our institution, and add at once a custodial department. Our chief embarrassment, however, is the failure of the people to recognize the necessity of thus promptly and properly providing for these unfortunates. Could our citizens generally have heard Dr. Kerlin's paper, and learned therefrom the connection between this class of the population and the crime of the country, they would not hesitate a moment in arranging at any cost for their institutional care. The facts and suggestions of this paper come as a new revelation to me, and convince me that we are only just beginning to awake to our responsibility in the premises.

The Committee on Time and Place of the next Conference reported through the chairman, Bishop C. F. Robertson, as follows:—

The Committee to whom was referred the matter of the time and place of the meeting of the next Annual Conference asks leave to report:—

1. That, as its unanimous voice, the place of meeting shall be Washington, D.C.
2. That the time of meeting of the Conference be referred to the Executive Committee of the Conference, in consultation with the local authorities, with the recommendation that the time be approximately about a year from now.

Mrs. SPENCER said that she had brought an invitation signed by a hundred citizens in Washington, representing the intelligence and philanthropy of the city, urging the Conference to make that city the place of the next annual meeting. She hoped that the Conference would accept that invitation.

It was voted to accept the invitation.

Mr. WINES hoped that arrangements would be made for holding the meeting in the spring. At that time, the city would be empty, and there would be room in the hotels for the members and in the newspapers for the reports.

Mrs. SPENCER was not disposed to consider the emptiness of the hotels an inducement, as the citizens of Washington would be glad to open their homes to the Conference.

Mr. WINES.—The people of Washington are very kind, but we cannot accept hospitality. We are not a Sunday-school convention nor a religious assembly. We do not ask for admission into private houses. We pay our own bills, and we want to go to hotels; and, for that purpose, we must go to Washington when there is room in the hotels.

Dr. BYERS.—Mr. Wines has made my speech so much better than I could that I feel like thanking him. I do not believe that we can afford to let local committees fix the time for our conferences.

Mr. HART moved that the subject of the time of holding the meeting be recommitted. Voted.

Adjourned.

EIGHTH SESSION.

Thursday afternoon, Oct. 16.

The Conference met at 2.30 P.M.

The President read a letter from the Governor of Indiana, apologizing for the oversight of not sending delegates to attend the Conference, but assuring the members of his sympathy with their work.

The discussion on the Organization and Management of Poor-houses was resumed.

Mr. WRIGHT.—To the officers whose duty it is to inspect poor-houses, the paper that Mr. Giles presented is of very great interest. Every sentence in it reflects years of observation and experience. It is Mr. Giles' proposition to add another incentive to the proper construction and management of poorhouses. That the incentives already in force in States having State boards of charities have a great

deal of weight, we must admit. Mr. Sanborn's paper shows that under similar incentives almshouses in New England are generally well conducted. But even in New England, and in some other portions of the country where there is supervision, they are not all that they should be. Some exceptions to the rule are invariably found; for there are some communities and some institutions that seem to be almost impervious to the enlightened public sentiment of the age.

Mr. Giles has made a suggestion to add another incentive for this class of exceptional cases, and also to bring up to a higher level those that are now reasonably well conducted. It is, as you will remember, that an appropriation be given from the State treasury for those criminals who are properly cared for in the right kind of poorhouses, thus putting the love of money, which is the root of most of the evils connected with poorhouse administration, on the other side of the scale. That class of people who cannot be reached by any other argument may be reached in this way. It seems to me there is in this suggestion matter well worthy of legal experiment. An analogous experiment has been tried in Wisconsin in relation to the care of the chronic insane in county asylums, where an appropriation of a dollar and a half a week for the proper care of the insane—that proper care to be certified to annually by the State Board of Charities—has brought up their care to a most excellent condition. Doubtless, the same result would be secured in pauper management by the same incentive.

MR. CHIDLAW.—Pauperism is on the increase in this land. In the State of Ohio, we have eighty-eight county infirmaries or homes for the pauper. In my labors as a Christian minister, I often turn aside to visit them, and have probably visited more than half of them. Some have a population as high as two hundred and fifty, others as low as thirty-five. But it has always impressed me as a sad fact that there is a great lack of religious instruction and of privileges of divine worship. The people are generally well fed with abundant and nutritious food, but very little intellectual and religious culture is provided. I do not know but one that has a chapel where people can come together, such as they have in connection with English almshouses.

MR. FILLER, a superintendent of one of the Ohio infirmaries, replied that there were two hundred and fifty inmates of his infirmary, and that they have a chapel that will seat three hundred, where they have religious services every Sunday. The preaching is given by the different members of the ministerial association of Columbus. The members of the infirmary are likewise allowed to attend any church they choose. They also have reading matter—papers and magazines—furnished them.

MR. FOY asked if the preachers received any payment for their services.

MR. FILLER.—No: we only furnish teams for them to drive out to the infirmary and back.

MR. FOY.—Then it is an individual thing with that infirmary. But

the condition of things is no worse than in Missouri. There is no provision for giving religious instruction and comfort in any public institution in St. Louis. Clergymen sometimes make their way into them, but it all depends on the individual will of the superintendents whether the inmates have a clergyman from one year's end to the other. Now, however it may be with the paupers that people the infirmaries and hospitals, it is manifest that the State or the city stands in a peculiar relation to young people; and if there is any benefit in religious instruction, if it is calculated to promote moral development and fortify it, then religious instruction should not be withheld.

Mr. HOWE thought that it was too common to build poorhouses in one corner of the county, on perhaps the poorest farm land to be found. It was another mistake to appoint men as managers on account of their political opinions rather than their ability to do well the work given them to do. He contrasted with that system the manner of caring for their poor in a religious community in New York that he visited in 1865, where the poor were lodged in the best house in the village on five acres of ground, and were supplied by the villagers in turn with food from their own tables.

Hon. Charles Anderson, chairman of the Committee on the Organization and Management of Prisons and Penitentiaries, was called to the chair.

Mr. ANDERSON.—The President of this Conference has been instant in season and out of season (and I think the whole year is "in season" with him for laboring in any good cause) in forwarding the interests of the Conference. Among other things, he invited a letter from France, from M. Fernand Desportes, Secretary of the Société Générale de France, that we might have the higher lights of civilization on this subject. He also had correspondence with England, and has received a paper from the Howard Association, which will be read by Dr. Byers. The paper from France is on its way, and, if not received in time to be presented to the Conference, will appear in the Proceedings (page 276).

Before listening to the letter from the Howard Association, the Conference allowed Hon. Israel C. Jones, of New York, to offer the following resolution, which was unanimously adopted:—

Resolved, That there be added to the Standing Committee of the National Conference of Charities and Correction a Committee on Statistics, having special reference to statistics concerning abandoned, dependent, and delinquent children, and that the said committee report at the next annual meeting of the Conference.

President Letchworth said he took pleasure in seconding the resolution, as he thought it proper that such a committee should be created, since it might bring about very desirable results.

The letter from the Howard Association was then read by Dr. Byers (page 272).

DISCUSSION.

Dr. BYERS.—There seems to be a misapprehension in the minds of gentlemen presumed to be more or less familiar with our prison system. It is not practicable to have organized labor in our county jails. It would not be legal. Reducing the jail to its appropriate use, it cannot be less, it should not be more, than a house of detention, in which persons awaiting trial are held till acquitted or convicted. We have no right to impose labor upon a person in the hands of the law suspected of crime and awaiting trial. That we do not do this seems to have gone abroad against us: it creeps out here to-day; it was mentioned yesterday. We should insist on having the jails reduced to their legitimate purpose, making them simply houses of detention; and we should farther insist upon absolute separation of all prisoners in county jails.

There is no reason why this should not be. It is the only safe way, and combines mercy with safety. If a man has any self-respect, the best thing society can do for him is to help him maintain that self-respect by protecting him from evil communications. If he has none, then the only thing is to shut him up by himself, that he may know what bad company is.

What will become of these people that we now send to county jails under sentence for minor offences? It is costing the State of Ohio, in round numbers, one hundred thousand dollars per annum in simply paying fees to the sheriffs for boarding the men in the county jails. The "suspects" constitute not more than one-third of that population. Take the other two-thirds, and upon their conviction send them to a workhouse and let them work out their fines and the penalty assessed by the law. We need district workhouses, so that we may rid the jails of this improper burden, and at the same time secure society from vagrancy and petty offences.

Mr. WINES.—Dr. Byers refers to the fees of sheriffs in Ohio. In Illinois, I do not think that the same evil exists. Sheriffs are not paid by fees in all the States: in some States, they are paid salaries; and there is something to be said on both sides of this question of the mode of payment. That the maintenance of the jail system is due to the opposition of the sheriffs to a change I do not believe. There are not prisoners enough in most jails, during the year, to make it any object for the sheriffs to keep them up for the sake of the fees.

Mr. WRIGHT.—In one county of Wisconsin which contains only twelve thousand people, the sheriff's fees and expenses amounted to thirteen thousand dollars in one year.

Mr. WINES.—Not for dieting prisoners?

Mr. WRIGHT.—For arresting and keeping them.

Mr. WINES.—The sheriff's fees for arrest would be precisely the same, if prisoners were confined elsewhere than in the jails.

Dr. BYERS.—In Ohio, our sheriffs receive no salaries. The cost of boarding prisoners averages fifty cents a day. There is not much

profit at that rate, but still some. In Hamilton County, where there are hundreds of prisoners, the cost of keeping is less than thirty-five cents a day, but the profit is very much larger than at fifty cents in smaller counties.

Mr. WINES.—One of the printed questions in our blank for the visitation of counties, this year, was whether the sheriffs would favor the substitution of State instead of county custody of prisoners; and, out of one hundred replies, I doubt whether ten were in favor of the retention of the county jail. The trouble with us is not the opposition of sheriffs, but the indifference of the public, which is due to their ignorance. My father used to say that, if the jails of this country could be brought together and the roofs taken off, so that people could walk over them on plank walks, and see them as they are, they would not last an hour longer than it would take to replace them.

Dr. BYERS.—The people would hardly last long enough to walk over them.

Mr. WINES.—Returning again to the paper from the Howard Association, we are obliged to Mr. Tallock for his letter. He states some things from the English point of view, and betrays ignorance of this country. He does not seem, for instance, to be aware that we have laws against the carrying of concealed weapons. It seems to me like putting the cart before the horse, to say that concealed weapons are the cause of murders. A murderous disposition in the heart leads to the carrying of weapons. But the prevalence of homicide in the United States is a fact to which public attention needs to be directed. Of fifty-eight thousand persons in prison, June 1, 1880, there were three thousand seven hundred and twenty-four charged with murder, and eight hundred and eighty-four with manslaughter,—in all, four thousand six hundred and eighty; and, of the entire number, only eighty were under sentence of execution. The number of homicides, annually, is very great; and we ought to exert our force toward the suppression of this crime.

The PRESIDENT.—I should like to understand what Mr. Wines considers the statutory definition of concealed weapons.

Mr. WINES.—I suppose a dirk or pistol, carried under the clothes.

The PRESIDENT.—I am under the impression that, under some of our statutes, a pistol may at all times be openly carried.

Mr. SCARBOROUGH.—Our first statute against carrying concealed weapons was directed against dirks and bowie-knives. After four years, it was made to include razors, as most of the murders that take place among the colored people of North Carolina are done with razors. They are now put on the same ground as dirks and bowie-knives before the law.

Mr. MILLIGAN.—There is one method of obviating the expense of keeping prisoners in jails, and that is the creation of district work-houses. Those who are well up in this matter will remember what an earnest effort was made by the State Board of Charities of Ohio

to relieve the great centres of population, where the greatest cost comes, of the overflow of prisoners that are sentenced for a short time for small offences. That, certainly, is one of the best methods for relieving the county jails; and it should receive all possible attention from the active members of the Board of State Charities of the different States. It is something that will demand changes of laws, but it is something that will have to be done. In Pennsylvania, although the matter has been talked of, it has never taken any definite shape. But we have a number of workhouses, some of them taking the name of penitentiaries, two called workhouses, both of which relieve to a great extent the large jails of Philadelphia, Pittsburgh, and other cities of our State, so that there is no possibility of peculation by the sheriffs of those counties, even if there was a disposition so to do. The wardens of these workhouses would have nothing to do in their control of the prisoners with the sheriffs, except receive from them those committed thereto by the proper authorities. As to the methods of control generally pursued in the jails of the United States, it is a humiliating and well-known fact that there is nothing more pernicious. Mr. Tallock is not accurately informed there, as his paper indicates. I have visited many of the prisons of the continent with him personally, and his views are of the highest character. In England and in some of the continental jails, the prisoners do a little work, picking oakum and some such things, but nothing remunerative, nothing that could be put into operation in the United States. But Mr. Tallock and the Howard Association have indefinite ideas of the question as it stands here. They are hard to teach in regard to the matter. I insist as my view, and the view of many of the members of this Conference, that the best way out of the terrible incubus that has rested on these United States since population began to gather is the creation of a workhouse for a district or a large city. I should like to hear from members from Pennsylvania, who are connected with the workhouse system, where prisoners are put into that kind of environment which shall keep them from contaminating any young individuals, while at the same time leaving the prisoners to be held for witnesses.

Mr. WARNER.—The subject of workhouses is a very important one. In the county I come from, in which the cities of Allegheny and Pittsburgh, Penn., are situated, is one of the largest and finest institutions of the kind that I know of. Sometimes, I am inclined to think that it is too fine and too comfortable, especially when I see the statistics of other institutions. The St. Louis workhouse, for instance, with a population in the county almost double that of ours, has only about half as large a number in the workhouse as we have. I visited the workhouse in Cincinnati; and, in that city with at least twenty per cent. greater population than ours, I find only about two-thirds as many in the workhouse. I do not feel flattered at the difference in numbers; but, in some other respects, I think we compare well with almost any. Our population now is six hundred and sixteen, over one hundred

being women. A few weeks ago, it was six hundred and sixty-two, and that at a time of year when it ought to be almost empty. The winter is the time when the population increases to the greatest degree. The prison belongs to the county. It is not under State supervision. It is engaged in various industries and trades on its own account. It has no prison contracts. The principal industries are the manufacture of oil-barrels, water-pails, churns, brooms, brushes, etc. The women knit stockings, do laundry work, and all the knitting, mending, etc., for the institution. The annual expenses of the institution are about eighty-two thousand dollars, the earnings about fifty thousand dollars, leaving a deficit of about thirty-two thousand dollars. The way in which this deficiency is provided for is this. Allegheny County has had, for twelve years, what in Ohio is called the "Scott law." That law, as enforced in Allegheny County, means that the business that furnishes the prisoners must pay for their maintenance. If total prohibition cannot be had, and workhouses must be maintained, then should the chief cause of their existence pay for them. The lowest whiskey license is three hundred dollars; and, for twelve years, three-fourths of the entire amount has been appropriated to the maintenance of the workhouses, making an annual income of two hundred and twenty-five thousand dollars. Seventy-five dollars of each license goes to the State, and the State gets more from that county than from any other. The money derived from that source has paid for the institution, which cost more than one million dollars, and has furnished a large working capital besides. There are now four hundred and fifty thousand dollars in the county treasury untouched, belonging to this fund; and seven hundred and fifty thousand dollars have been given from time to time to the county of Allegheny to reduce taxation. We can therefore afford to have a good institution. We have all the appliances possible for an institution of that kind. I listened with interest to the complaints of delegates from Ohio of the lack of religious instruction in the poorhouses of that State. They should not wait for the legislature to say, You can have chapels or chaplains, bibles or tracts. I say to the gentlemen, If you want these things, you should get them. You can have them without legislation. We have them all. So large a number of prisoners as we have consumes a great amount of reading matter. We go to the newspapers and ask for their exchanges, and they give them. Let the ministers and the reading people know that you want reading matter, and they will fill your workhouses and poorhouses without trouble and without expense. The Bible Society will be only too glad to give bibles for the asking.

There are some very discouraging circumstances connected with all workhouses. One is the constant return of individuals who have been committed and recommitted again and again. It is exceedingly discouraging when men and women who have been in the workhouse, and discharged clean and healthy, come back in twenty-four hours worse than ever before. What is to be done with such people? This is the cry that comes up from all over the

land. I heard one prison officer here say that one individual came back seventy-five times. I have some who have been in forty times. It is a shame and a blot that no method has yet been devised by which this can be prevented. We are too kind to our prisoners in some respects; we are not severe enough. Those who will make a prison their home, going out for a few days at a time and then returning for term after term, should be shut up permanently. Every man and woman that leaves our institution—according to their own representation—is entirely reformed! However, they do not remain reformed more than half an hour or so, about long enough to get to the nearest saloon. I cannot describe my feelings, while prison experience was new to me, when one after another, who professed repentance and sorrow, came back the next day handcuffed. On an average, every three months there are turned out by us six hundred prisoners, most of whom are polluted in body and mind, simply let loose to prey upon the community! And this is the experience of every workhouse in the country. It would be better to send out six hundred people with small-pox or other contagious disease than to turn that current of pollution loose upon an unsuspecting public. Until the people of the United States learn to deal strictly, till they learn to look at justice as well as mercy, this state of affairs will be continued. There are hundreds of criminals who live nowhere else than in prisons, going from one to the other. Nearly every case of murder in Allegheny County can be associated in some way with an habitué of its prisons. Sometimes it is the murderer, and sometimes it is the victim.

Q.—Do you think if you abolished the sale of liquor you would diminish the population of the workhouse?

Mr. WARNER.—Yes, very materially, but not entirely. But I suspect that the greater part of our excessive population comes because the Allegheny workhouse is pretty well advertised by tramps as a good place to stop,—better advertised than I like.

Mr. CARPENTER said every one would agree that it was very desirable to have men better when they leave workhouses and jails than when they enter them. He thought this was to be brought about through the influence of wardens who should be capable of reading character well and of exercising an influence over men that should be helpful. A good warden will command the attention of his men when he speaks to them. He will talk right to their hearts, and will thus have a controlling influence over them. He will create a public opinion among his prisoners which shall be reformatory in its character. He will know how to deal with men,—not on the principle of coaxing them to be good, but by maintaining strict order and discipline. He will do this not by carrying pistols, but by methods which appeal to the minds and hearts of his prisoners.

Mr. Foy said that Missouri has a law which makes gambling a felony, and the result is that gambling is almost extirpated. He thought that if the carrying of concealed weapons were also made a felony it would be a wise thing. Although people might fight and

quarrel, they would hardly kill each other without knife or pistol. With the disappearance of concealed weapons would disappear a great many cases of violence.

Mr. ROUND.—I am profoundly interested in county jails. I am ready to agree with Dr. Byers that they ought to be abolished, and with Mr. Milligan that a district workhouse ought to be established in their place; but I cannot agree with Dr. Byers, when he says that it is not possible under the law that we should have a system of labor in our county jails. In New York, we have sixty-six county jails. We have in those jails eighteen hundred persons, sent there under the law to varying imprisonment. As the average term of imprisonment is five months, I hold that any criminal shut up for five months should be obliged to have some work to employ his time and to help to earn his living. The jails are a terrible burden. It costs forty-five cents a day for every person, four times the cost in the average State prison. They form the nucleus of a mean, contemptible party faction. They are the centre of political power in the county. We have a system of taking fees for the sheriff, and some have one hundred and ninety-five persons boarding at an expense of three dollars and seventy-five cents per week.

As soon as we try to do away with the county jail and have district workhouses, these political factions rise up and oppose us. When the gentleman from New York spoke about public opinion in the prison, I was thinking to myself, That is the key-note to all prison reform outside the prison. We have determined to keep the condition of these jails before the public, and we in New York are about to enter upon a series of forty meetings to consider this subject.

Rabbi SONNESCHEIN.—I am an idealist. When yet a very young rabbi in one of the Austrian provinces, I was delegated by the government to visit a State prison four times a year. I visited the Jewish prisoners, of course, who were easily reformed. I was then as I am now an idealist, and every idealist is trying to strike and to reform the evil at the root. He may not be able to exactly point out the means by which the prison reformer may destroy or correct the evil at once; but, with an intelligent audience like this, he will be at least permitted to bring his ideals before them. There are only two kinds of criminals,—the one corrigible and the other incorrigible. There is no third. Among the incorrigible, you will find sometimes the best educated men. And they are often the least accessible to your correcting influences. The means which prove a success with the ignorant criminal will very rarely have any effect with the educated and intelligent prisoner. And all I wish to say is,—and I wish that my voice could reach every board of State prisons,—Abandon where possible the institution of large and densely packed penitentiaries, and establish instead smaller prisons, where the convicts will be placed according to their mental grade of education. Rich Illinois could easily do such a thing. Poor old Missouri of course could not afford it. If a prisoner is convicted of a certain

crime, public opinion will exactly know and judge to what sort of a prison that convict belongs. Put the intelligent among the better educated, and place the brutal and ignorant among the illiterate. In one prison, the workshop will be the great reformatory; and, in another, the school, the class-room, will elevate and correct the evil. Are there incorrigibles among both kinds? Then treat them as they deserve, with all the severity of offended and angered humanity. I am an idealist; and, as such, I say emphatically: An incorrigible convict merits no mercy and has no feeling for your humanity. I am not an admirer of Bismarck, but I like him for one remarkably statesmanlike saying. When, about twenty years ago, the Prussian Parliament discussed the abolition of capital punishment, he thundered forth that true and mighty word: "Gentlemen, I am willing to aid you in your noble and humanitarian resolution; but then, please, convince the blood-thirsty criminals first that murder must be abolished!" If we want to be humane to the incorrigible convict, let him *first* learn the lesson of humanity. That is all I have to say.

Mr. HART.—Last year, I saw the lessee system in Kentucky; but there are worse prisons than the prison camp I visited there. I visited one in Montana, where the prison has suitable accommodations for fifty-six prisoners; but, when I was there, there were one hundred and twenty men confined. Twenty had employment in doing cooking, etc.; and one hundred were kept in absolute idleness. I found fifty-six in cells. In one room, twelve by twenty-four, twenty-one men were kept idle day and night. They had fifteen minutes a day for exercise, and were taken out for dinner. In an inner strong room, with one window about three feet by two and double barred, there were sixteen men kept day and night. The room was only twenty feet square. This prison is owned by the United States government, and managed by a United States marshal at territorial expense under a special law. It is the most dreadful prison I have ever seen. The officers of the prison told me—and it has been confirmed—that when a woman is arrested in Miles City she is not only put in the same prison, but let loose in the same corridor with the men. An assembly like this ought to raise its voice against the maintenance of such abominable holes. The members of the bar of Montana are making a strong effort to secure remedial legislation.

Mr. GOTTSCHALK gave an account of his labors as city missionary among the reformatory institutions of Kansas City. He felt that great love and sympathy were necessary in dealing with prisoners.

Mrs. J. M. Sadd of the Sadd Mission, Louisville, Ky., was invited to speak.

Mrs. SADD.—I hold in my hand my commission from the Governor of Kentucky empowering me to represent the State. A great many efforts are now being made in our State to investigate cruelties in institutions and to suppress the same. We are united in the new organization of charities. Much is also being done for the cause of temperance. Whatever becomes of the

parents, we are determined to save the children. To this end, we have many industrial schools. The Sadd Mission has had over ten thousand children in its various schools in the twenty-two years I have been connected with it. We have mothers' meetings once a week, in order to have the help of the mothers in saving the children; and to these mothers we recommend neatness and making home attractive to the fathers and the children. And we teach the children that "a good name is rather to be chosen than great riches."

Mr. HOWE.—Our jail in Lincoln, Neb., is very well kept. We have a good sheriff. We have service every Sunday afternoon, looked after by the Woman's Christian Temperance Union. In Omaha, they have religious services under the auspices of the Young Men's Christian Association.

The penitentiary in our new State may not be expected to be so well regulated as in the older States, but we have an excellent warden. He reads character well, and examines his prisoners carefully. The sanitary arrangements are well looked after, but one death having occurred from sickness in the last two years. The rate of punishment measured by the length of its duration is six per cent. less than in some of the Eastern prisons.

There are many obstacles in the way of reform in prisons. There are men who will not be reformed,—I do not say cannot be. But the indiscriminate way in which men are sentenced for the same crime is a great mistake. Last spring, a man was sent to the penitentiary for fifteen years. The judge said, in passing sentence, "You are sent one year for forgery and fourteen years for general cussedness." It was an unjust sentence, although the prisoner may have been a very bad man. We have another young man there for horse-stealing. He is committed for twenty years, and was but nineteen when sent to the penitentiary. When he comes out, he will be forty, save one; and that also is an unjust sentence. He wrote to the judge the other day, and asked him to go to the governor to see what could be done in his case. The judge said in reply that the man was sent for ten or fifteen years more than he ought to have been, because he did not fully investigate his case. It is difficult to reach such cases, for the men feel the injustice of their sentences and are hardened to good influence.

NINTH SESSION.

Thursday night, Oct. 16.

The Conference was called to order by the President at 7.30 P.M.

Bishop C. F. ROBERTSON reported for the Committee on Time and Place of the next Conference, recommending that the Executive Committee call the Conference about one year from the present time.

Dr. BYERS was in favor of holding it in May.

Mrs. SPENCER assured the Conference that it would be welcome in Washington, whenever it should think best to come.

Mr. BIDDLE thought that the spring would be an inconvenient season.

Dr. BYERS said that the experience with spring meetings had not been discouraging: the attendance had been good.

On motion, it was voted to give the Committee leave to withdraw the report, leaving the matter in the hands of the Executive Committee.

The following communication from the International Prison Commission was read by Hon. C. D. Randall:—

INTERNATIONAL PRISON COMMISSION,

ROME and NEUFCHATEL, Aug. 6, 1884.

Sir and Honored Colleague,—We hasten to communicate to you the following letter that his Excellency, Duke Leopold Torlonia, President of the Local Committee of the International Prison Congress of Rome, has addressed to M. Beltrani Scalia:—

ROME, Aug. 1, 1884.

To the President of the International Prison Commission:

You are aware that the International Prison Congress of Stockholm designated the city of Rome as the place of the future reunion, and that this reunion should take place in the month of October this year.

The Central Committee had, on its part, prepared everything for this reunion to take place at the time indicated; and, to aid in securing this noble end, the Italian government had presented to the Parliament a proposed act for the necessary expenses.

But the hygienic condition of Europe and the consequent difficulties of communication between the countries, as well as proper prudence and courtesy to our hosts, have induced us to postpone the reunion at Rome until October, 1885.

This delay, far from prejudicing the cause, will enable us to consider and determine arrangements with foreign governments that will better explain the project of the Congress and give to it the necessary scope to assure to our labors the greatest efficiency possible, which is what we desire. For this purpose there have been named the Commissioner T. Canonico, Senator of Rome, Councillor, etc., and the Baron F. de Renzis, a Deputy of Parliament, etc.

Accept, Mr. President, the sentiments of my highest considerations.

L. TORLONIA,
President of the Committee.

We appreciate the reasons that have caused the adjournment of the Congress. We are reconciled by the certainty that the government of his Majesty the King of Italy ardently desires that the future Congress shall meet at Rome, and has taken necessary measures to secure its success. We have evidence of this in the appointment of the two official delegates who have received the commission to visit the governments of the different countries of Europe which have not yet indicated their intention to be represented in the Congress and to secure from them favorable action.

From information we have received, M. Canonico will visit in the month of

October Russia, Sweden, Norway, Prussia, Hamburg, Lübeck, Bremen, Bavaria, and the other States of the German Empire, and Switzerland.

M. de Renzis will visit in September the Netherlands, England, France, Denmark, Austria, Spain, and Portugal.

The Bureau of the Commission will meet soon and communicate to you the decisions that it will make.

Receive, Sir and Honored Colleague, the assurance of our consideration.

In the name of the International Commission.

M. BELTRANI SCALIA, *President.*

Dr. GUILLAUME, *Secretary.*

To the Hon. C. D. RANDALL, Coldwater, Mich.

Mr. RANDALL.—It is well known that this International Prison Conference met first in London, then in Stockholm in 1878, and was to meet this month in Rome. Most of the civilized governments of the world have signified their interest by an appropriation toward paying the expenses of the Congress, printing, etc. The United States, however, has never notified the Commission of any such action by our government. Circulars of information have been issued by the United States Bureau of Education, and can be obtained by addressing Mr. Letchworth, Mr. Wines, or Mr. Milligan, or me at Coldwater, Mich. The Commission has appointed three reporters for this country. They are Mr. Sanborn of Massachusetts, Mr. Vaux of Pennsylvania, and myself. The reporters are to report in advance of the Congress on subjects submitted to them.

Mr. Randall then offered the following resolution, which was unanimously adopted:—

Whereas it appears that the International Prison Congress of Rome has by reason of the presence of the cholera in Europe been postponed until October, 1885; and that though that most important of all associations engaged in preventive, reformatory, and penal work is especially the outgrowth of American influences, chiefly through the labors of the distinguished and revered Dr. E. C. Wines, yet our general government has not signified its adherence to the regulations of this Congress,—therefore,—

Resolved, That the President of this Convention be authorized to appoint a committee of three to memorialize the Congress of the United States, on behalf of this Convention, earnestly requesting that honorable body to take suitable action to secure the representation of this country in the International Prison Congress in Rome in 1885.

A paper by Mr. F. L. Jenkins, Chief of Police of Brooklyn, on "The Police and Juvenile Crime," was read by title and referred to the Publication Committee (page 285).

An invitation from the Little Sisters of the Poor of St. Louis was given to the Conference to visit their institution. On motion, it was voted to accept it with thanks.

It was voted, on motion, that the discussion after Mr. Round's paper should be confined to wardens of prisons and penitentiaries.

A paper on "The Penal System of the United States" was then read by Mr. William M. F. Round, of New York.

On motion, it was voted that Mrs. J. B. Hobbs, of Chicago, be permitted to speak on the necessity of having matrons in police stations, before the opening of the discussion on Prisons and Penitentiaries. (For the remarks of Mrs. Hobbs, see page 293.)

Mr. J. W. Hicks, warden of the penitentiary in Raleigh, N.C., was invited to open the discussion.

DISCUSSION.

Mr. HICKS.—If the paper that has been read were taken up and discussed one point after another, it certainly would require deep thought. We have very little experience with the contract system, because most of our prisoners are worked on public account. I am thoroughly in sympathy with the ideas of the paper on indeterminate sentences. I beg leave to refer to our own institution. In 1868-69, a law was passed giving North Carolina a penitentiary. On the 29th of August, 1869, we commenced work on that institution. We began digging ditches and putting up stockades, shanties, etc., all covered in under one roof, leaving passage-ways between, and commenced receiving prisoners the 6th of January. Many of them came to us in bad condition. We had no employment for most of them, and they were set to work on the railroads of the State. The most of them were colored. About four-fifths were taken from the eastern part of the State, and they seemed to be unprepared to resist the cold season of the western part of the State. Many of them sickened and died. That accounts for the large mortality which we were reported to have. The prisoners were huddled together, but it was the best we could do. The State was in an impoverished condition, so that we could not have all the modern improvements. Our condition now, at the home prison, is excellent. There are still about seven hundred out on the railroads, and their quarters are much better than they used to be. The health of the convicts is better; and, generally speaking, they are in good condition. We are doing what we can at the home prison to improve their condition. We have an admission fee of ten cents that is applied to the prison library. Besides, through the kindness of various persons, we had large contributions of books, papers, etc. We spend Sunday morning in the prison school-room. We congregate the colored in one room and the whites in another; and I pass from one room to another and instruct them, and they enjoy it very much. In the afternoon, religious services are held under the auspices of the Young Men's Christian Association; and we sing, pray, and study the lessons, and many who came into the prison not knowing their letters now read very easily.

So we are making some progress. We are doing the best we can under the circumstances. As far as possible, we keep track of our prisoners after they go out. Some are doing well, but I regret to say many of them find their way back to the prison.

Q.—Are the colored and white prisoners kept separate on ordinary occasions?

MR. HICKS.—Yes: always, in cells and at meals. We have males and females kept in different buildings.

Q.—What proportion of your prisoners have you in prison?

MR. HICKS.—Two hundred and fifty at this time.

Q.—Are they healthy?

MR. HICKS.—Yes, generally speaking. The home prison is the hospital for the whole prison population. We have excellent hospitals, with plenty of light and air.

[The remainder of Mr. Hicks' address was made on Friday morning, but for convenience of reference is inserted here.—ED.]

Mr. Cable, in his paper read last year at the Conference, at Louisville, was under the misapprehension that North Carolina leases its convict labor and has no supervision of its convicts away from the home prison. Such is not the case. No convicts are sent on roads outside of the prison that are not supervised and controlled by State authorities. A supervisor is appointed, and under him overseers and guards. From them, we get regular reports every month. There is a physician at each separate set of works. In addition to that, one of the board of directors visits the works every month, examining the condition of the men, getting information in every way as to the management,—whether there has been any abuse, whether the men have been overworked, whether they have been properly fed, clothed, etc. It is a matter looked into very carefully, but it was a natural mistake for Mr. Cable to make. One reason for it was that, the outside convicts being looked after by so many different physicians, their reports were not tabulated.

DR. BYERS.—In whose interest do these men labor?

MR. HICKS.—Their labor is hired out. Originally, they started out on State roads. But, later, the roads were sold, and the convict labor was a part of contract in sale; but the State still held control of their management. To give you an intelligent idea of what we try to find out about the management of these convicts, I will read the questions which the supervisors of convicts on the different railroads and other works on which convicts are engaged are obliged to answer in writing every month:—

1. Are your cells in good condition and sufficient in size? Are they kept clean and suitable and sufficient disinfectants used to promote good health, etc.?
2. How often do your convicts bathe and change their clothing?
3. Are your convicts well clothed to suit the season?
4. Are their rations sound in quality and sufficient in quantity?
5. Do they always receive proper medical attention?
6. Have there been any abuses to your convicts by guards, overseers, and others?
7. Are you maintaining good, wholesome discipline with the guards and convicts?
8. Are the convicts performing satisfactory labor?
9. Are the convicts

always furnished with citizens' suits, and the amount due them as commutation money paid them, when discharged? 10. Has your salary for the last month, and previous to that, been paid? If not, why?

These are signed by the supervisor of convicts. Then they come to the warden, then to the board of directors and are filed. One of the board of directors visits the railroad and other works where the men are employed once a month. We take every precaution possible to protect the convict and the public at the same time. The reports are all carefully examined; and, if there is anything that demands investigation, it is made at once. In addition to all that, an officer goes around to get information from the convicts and from the inhabitants, wherever he can, so as to verify the statements.

MR. GARRETT.—I fear that the only way we can get rid of all the evils which attend the lease system will be by abandoning it entirely.

MR. J. R. WILLIS, warden of the Missouri State Penitentiary, was invited to continue the discussion.

MR. WILLIS.—Our penitentiary is one of the largest institutions of its kind in the United States, having a population of fifteen hundred. I shall very cheerfully answer any questions that any person present may desire to ask with regard to the management of that institution, but respectfully decline entering upon a discussion of a paper prepared with such evident care, without giving it very careful consideration.

Q.—Do you prefer the contract system or public account?

MR. WILLIS.—I could not say. We are not manufacturing anything except brick.

Q.—Have you any suggestions to make as to discharged prisoners?

MR. WILLIS.—I do not think the same condition exists in Missouri as in Eastern States with regard to discharged prisoners. At the Prison Conference in New York last spring, I heard a good deal of talk about it. We have very few persons returned to us a second time. Probably eight per cent. of our men return, but most of them have homes. Nearly all are from Missouri, and do not desire any aid in securing homes. Occasionally, a woman does, not often a man.

Q.—Have you any boys under sixteen?

MR. WILLIS.—Eighteen is the youngest. Our law limits to that age.

Q.—What proportion is colored?

MR. WILLIS.—About one-fourth.

Q.—What do the women work at?

MR. WILLIS.—They make clothing of all kinds for the prisoners.

Q.—Have you any sentences for less than a year?

MR. WILLIS.—Two years is the minimum.

Q.—What does the State do for them at the end of that time?

Mr. WILLIS.—The State gives them ten dollars, or enough to take them to their homes in money, and a suit of clothes worth fifteen dollars.

Q.—On what occasions are they congregated together?

Mr. WILLIS.—We have the dining-room system. They congregate for meals three times a day. They work in factories where they are close together. Then we have two holidays, the Fourth of July and Christmas, where every one is turned loose in the yard and allowed the full privilege of the grounds.

Q.—When not thus together, are they locked in their cells?

Mr. WILLIS.—Yes.

Q.—Do you enforce silence?

Mr. WILLIS.—Not strictly. Our cells are adapted, some to four persons and some to two. In these, we allow them to talk until nine o'clock. When at work, we do not allow them to converse.

Q.—You have a dining hall: have you had experience in any other way of feeding the prisoners, and what would be your judgment about the best way?

Mr. WILLIS.—I am in favor of the dining halls. We have tables, and the food is all put on in large dishes; and every man gets what he wants. The large eater has as much as he may wish, and the small one as little. In the other system, they all have the same amount; but there is a great variation in men's appetites. I have been here twelve years, and have never had the slightest commotion in the dining-room.

Q.—Do they have knives and forks?

Mr. WILLIS.—Yes, and spoons.

Q.—Is the limit of age the same for women as for men?

Mr. WILLIS.—Yes.

Q.—What is the average age?

Mr. WILLIS.—Twenty-eight.

Q.—Do you allow any musical instruments, violins, flutes, or mouth-organs?

Mr. WILLIS.—No.

Q.—What do the prisoners do after it is dark?

Mr. WILLIS.—Every cell has a light and reading matter, and the prisoner can spend his evening reading and writing.

Q.—How many volumes have you for the fifteen hundred men?

Mr. WILLIS.—About three thousand. We have also magazines, etc., coming in all the time.

Q.—What proportion is foreign or the children of foreign parents?

Mr. WILLIS.—It is a very small proportion in Missouri, about eleven per cent.

Q.—What proportion is women?

Mr. WILLIS.—There are forty women out of a total of fifteen hundred.

Q.—What crimes are they committed for?

Mr. WILLIS.—Larceny, mostly.

Q.—How many women are there between eighteen and twenty-five years of age?

Mr. WILLIS.—Probably one-half.

Q.—What are the nationalities of the women?

Mr. WILLIS.—Many Americans and about one-half colored.

Q.—What do the men do between the hour for getting their meals until they go to work?

Mr. WILLIS.—They go to the shop and chat together till the work begins.

Q.—Would there be any objection to letting them have some recreation at that time?

Mr. WILLIS.—The time is too short.

Q.—Could any of them be trusted and allowed the freedom of the city?

Mr. WILLIS.—We have about one hundred out of the fifteen hundred who could be sent with teams over the city,—probably more than that number.

Q.—What number are in for life?

Mr. WILLIS.—Nineteen.

Q.—Are any of these commutations of sentences for capital punishment?

Mr. WILLIS.—Probably not more than eight.

Q.—Do you use corporal punishment?

Mr. WILLIS.—To a certain extent, not often. I have adopted other plans that work as well, probably better.

Q.—Do you crop their heads?

Mr. WILLIS.—Reasonably so.

Q.—Do you let their hair and beard grow before sending them out?

Mr. WILLIS.—Yes. We allow every man sixty days, if he has behaved himself.

Q.—Do you think that expedient?

Mr. WILLIS.—I think it decidedly proper.

Q.—Is there a female officer who has charge of the women?

Mr. WILLIS.—Yes. A matron with an assistant has charge of them.

Q.—What discount is allowed for good behavior?

Mr. WILLIS.—One-fourth.

Q.—Have the women the same hours for work as the men?

Mr. WILLIS.—Yes: eight hours in winter and ten hours in summer.

Q.—Are the women allowed any privileges, such as doing fancy work, etc.?

Mr. WILLIS.—Yes: they are allowed to do fancy work, to make things to send to their friends and to take away.

I want to say, in closing, a word for our life-time prisoners. They are the best people we have. We have less trouble with them than with any others. We make no difference with our treatment of a man whether he is there for ninety-nine years or for two.

Mr. John C. Salter warden of the Southern Penitentiary, Illinois, was invited to continue the discussion.

Mr. SALTER.—The practical question with us is, How can we make our men better, so that they shall really be better men when they go out than when they came in? As it is, I fear we do not. How can we do this? We cannot grade our penitentiaries, so that the old and the young shall not be thrown together. The professional criminal is more or less brought into contact with the boy that has committed his first crime. The prison of which I have control in Illinois is for only eight hundred men. The management has been as far as possible humane, appealing to the better nature of men, and bringing that to our aid in controlling them. In almost every man, we find a little spark of good somewhere. If I can reach that, it is effectual in controlling the men.

Q.—What recreation do you allow your men?

Mr. SALTER.—We have the Fourth of July, Thanksgiving, and Christmas as holidays. On those days, we have some exercises in the chapel. Then I turn them out in the cell-house, and let them do as they please, leaving it with them how far they should go; and I have had no ill effects. They seem to have a good time generally, singing, laughing, playing the violin, and dancing square dances and round. They always look forward to it with glad anticipation.

Q.—What kind of work do they do?

Mr. SALTER.—Some work on contract: some do State work. We have large quarries that employ from one to three hundred. Some have been employed on construction.

Q.—What proportion is colored?

Mr. SALTER.—About one-sixth are colored. The white and black cell separately. They work and attend service together.

Q.—Does each prisoner know every other?

Mr. SALTER.—Yes: there is a kind of unwritten language by which they become acquainted with each other. I have for nearly a year had what I call sociables—not exactly of a church character—in the chapel, of from one hundred to a hundred and fifty. Our chapel is connected with the cell-house. I went into this arrangement with reluctance, but I have found only good results so far. My men have been better men for it, and have appreciated the privilege. My punishment record has been less; they work more cheerfully and have been more obedient. We have had no plans for escape and no disorder for the last nine months.

Q.—What punishment do you use?

Mr. SALTER.—Solitary confinement.

Q.—Don't you think it likely to follow from this freedom that the old and really wicked criminals will get the younger ones into a worse state of mind, with more likelihood to indulgence in crime afterwards?

Mr. SALTER.—I do not think that is our experience. It is only on good conduct that they are allowed these privileges.

Q.—Are they left by themselves, without the warden?

Mr. SALTER.—No: the warden or deputy and two or three officers are present.

Q.—Don't you have to use the paddle?

Mr. SALTER.—No, sir, not at all. Our only punishment during working hours is to make a man stand by the cell-door with his hand chained in a horizontal position. A week ago, I abolished the lock-step in our penitentiary. I called the men together in the chapel, and told them that, if they behaved well, they had walked for the last time in the lock-step. I never saw anything more appreciated. For some time, I have seen no special use in it, but have been hardly willing to take this advanced step; but I felt like taking another after having begun.

Q.—Have you had many recommitments?

Mr. SALTER.—Not a great many, perhaps twenty-five.

Q.—What clothes do the prisoners wear?

Mr. SALTER.—Black and white stripe. I think it would be an advantage to change that.

Q.—What do you think of a plain gray uniform?

Mr. SALTER.—That would be an improvement. I would make it a reward for good conduct.

Q.—Do they use tobacco?

Mr. SALTER.—Yes.

Q.—Who furnishes it?

Mr. SALTER.—The State.

Q.—Have you ever had a mutiny?

Mr. SALTER.—I had one attempt at an outbreak. Last year, I had threats. There was a gang of fifty in the plot, but only five made the break. We shot four inside the walls, and one of them dangerously; and that was the last of it.

Q.—Have you any under sentence for wife-beating?

Mr. SALTER.—I think not.

Mr. KOEHLER.—The management of our prison in Dakota is about the same as the Detroit House of Correction. We have at present ninety-three prisoners. Our building has all the modern improvements,—good sewerage, registers under each window, each cell two ventilators, the cells five by eight by seven with one man to each cell. Sometimes, two are allowed together for good behavior. The men quarry stone for building purposes. Their clothing is blue-gray jean. I think striped clothing will not help the reformation of men. I have eighteen boys under the age of twenty, twenty-four from twenty-one to twenty-five, and very few over forty.

Q.—Do you take a close history of these men?

Mr. KOEHLER.—Yes.

Q.—Do any of them speak of ever having been in reform schools or houses of refuge?

Mr. KOEHLER.—Three have been in prison before.

Mr. WRIGHT.—The difficulty in classifying criminals is that they fade into one another. But there are, after all, only about three classes of persons sentenced to prison. The first is the professional criminal, the second the person of bad hereditary

character, and the third the accidental criminal. The last is usually a person of tolerably good character, who has been drawn into crime by stress of temptation or when intoxicated. These form the bulk of prisoners in our penitentiaries.

MR. BEASLEY.—What substitute could be made for the county jail? In our Southern States, we have courts but once in six months, sometimes once in three months. What are we to do with those persons who are arraigned during the time pending the session of the court?

MR. ROUND.—My suggestion would be to have more judges and more courts.

MR. HIGHTON.—There is one danger we are forgetting in discussing reformatories: that is the danger of encouraging an influx of criminals from abroad. In a visit to a Pennsylvania prison, I found a man there who knew more about criminal classes and prisons in England and America than any man I ever saw. He told me that these men, the Bill Sykes and Fagins, who live by criminality, calculate where to pursue their occupations, and they know in which country the prisoners fare best. In our desire to ameliorate the condition of prisoners, we must take care lest we be not inflicting an injury on society. If we pursue this discussion without doing something practical, that will be the result. At the same time, Mr. Round was right in his views of county jails. They are a disgrace in my own State of California. The county jails should be kept for persons not convicted, and the district workhouses should free the jails. Too much sentimentality destroys the distinctions between vice and virtue.

One hears crime talked of not as crime, but as a misfortune, as a thing we ought to sympathize with; and I very much doubt whether there is that sincerity of reformation in the criminals which we suppose there is. What we are doing is tentative and experimental, and we must be very careful in our methods.

MR. SCARBOROUGH.—One great difficulty that we have to contend with in North Carolina is that the colored people do not see any degradation in having to go to the penitentiary. The most intelligent colored men, and especially the ministers, are continually coming to my office to ask what they can do to draw some line of social demarcation between the criminal and the honest man. They come out of the penitentiary and are received into exactly the same social relations as before they went in. I am sorry to say that the white people are not so sensitive about this as they ought to be. If they want a good domestic, they would apparently just as soon employ one that has been in the penitentiary. What shall we do to lift our people up to an appreciation of the fact that there is a difference between the man who goes to the penitentiary for crime and the man that does not?

MR. ANDERSON.—That is a practical difficulty. That state of affairs is as true of Kentucky as of North Carolina: the negro race does not care a bit whether a man has been in the penitentiary or not.

MR. BEASLEY.—If there is one thing that we have to thank the

North for, it is that it has wiped out the curse of slavery from the United States. Now, if you can raise the negro in the social scale, no people on God's earth will welcome that more than the people of North Carolina. I promise you the co-operation of thousands of men and women, who will help you in any practical plans that you can devise.

Mr. SCARBOROUGH.—We must not apply this to the negro alone. There is too much of this moral insensibility among the whites. I do hope some plan may be devised that shall overcome this difficulty.

Judge McREE.—This is a question that directly concerns us down in Tennessee. You people north of the Ohio do not understand it as we do. The colored people are getting into our jails, our workhouses, our prisons, and are undergoing a slavery that the old slavery was nothing compared to it. The mortality in the prisons is very great. We want to devise some means by which they shall be elevated. We have one woman down there in Chattanooga who has been there for the last two years, from Massachusetts. She calls herself a missionary to the negroes. She is working as grandly as any person I ever saw. She is worth more than any twenty people that I can find in our own county, for this work.

She has procured scholarships for forty-four negro boys and girls. Of these, I pay the transportation. That is all the county does. She has not only done that, but, with her own money, she has built a colored home for those under twelve. In that home, she gathers all the children that have no place to go to; and we pay her five dollars a month for all in that home. There are now fifteen in this home. She does all that she can. Still, the task is too enormous. It is so tremendous that without some aid I do not see how we are going to meet it. And it seems to me to be growing worse. The negroes seem to be going downward instead of upward. I am certainly in favor of national education or anything that will tend to bring these people up.

As for the remedy for the wrong of keeping innocent persons in jail while waiting trial, I would suggest speedy examinations. I would have judges appointed by the governor and have them hold their office through good behavior. In Tennessee, we have workhouses and take the inmates from our county and some adjoining counties. No one is kept in jail except those held for trial. If we could have monthly sittings of the courts and speedy trials, we could improve our criminal jurisprudence in Tennessee.

Mr. WINES.—We come together from distant parts of the country, hardly knowing each other's troubles; but I think that, if anything is more plain than that these gentlemen have a real difficulty and a severe struggle before them, it is that they are honestly endeavoring to meet it. And I am sure that I express the sentiment of the whole Conference when I say that what they need at our hands is not censure nor criticism, but sympathy and help.

Adjourned.

TENTH SESSION.

Friday morning, Oct. 17.

The Conference met at 9.30 A.M. Prayer was offered by Rabbi Sonneschein.

The President, Mr. Letchworth, announced as the committee to collect statistics concerning juvenile delinquents Hon. Israel C. Jones, Rev. Fred. H. Wines, and Rev. H. H. Hart.

Before taking up the subject for the morning, "Provision for the Insane," the President read a telegram from Dr. D. H. Tuke of London, Eng., regretting that he could not be present and expressing his sympathy with the work of the Conference, especially with what has been done for the insane.

The President, referring to the necessary absence of Dr. J. B. Chapin, chairman of the Committee on the Insane, said: Dr. Chapin was duly notified of his appointment as chairman of the Committee on Provision for the Chronic Insane, and it was expected he would be here to make a report. In July last, he wrote asking to be relieved from his engagement in consequence of his acceptance of an appointment in another State, and the new duties that would occupy his time; but the request was not acceded to. I am now in receipt of a telegram and a letter from Dr. Chapin expressing his regret that he has been unable to complete the portion of the work of this Conference allotted to him, and his sympathy and interest in the objects of this meeting.

The relation that Dr. Chapin has held to the chronic insane and the difficulties surrounding the question of making adequate and suitable provision for this numerous class increase the disappointment caused by his absence on this occasion. It is doubtless known to most of those in this Conference that Dr. Chapin, previous to his recent appointment as successor to the lamented Dr. Kirkbride, was the superintendent of the Willard Asylum from its beginning. This institution was founded in 1869, by the noble charity of the State of New York, for the purpose of suitably providing for the large number of chronic insane then in a most wretched condition in the county poorhouses. At this asylum are now sheltered in plain, inexpensive, detached buildings about eighteen hundred of this class.

In the development and management of this institution, Dr. Chapin has achieved an enviable reputation both for humane administration and economy. While securing to the inmates of

Willard comfortable care and tender treatment, he succeeded in reducing the *per capita* cost of their maintenance, exclusive of medical supervision, to the rate of two dollars and forty-five cents per week.

The expression of his views would be valuable to us; but, as we cannot hear it at this time, it is to be hoped that we shall have him with us in our next Conference.

The paper on "Compensation of Insane Labor: Suggestions in Regard to the Better Organization of a System of Labor for the Chronic Insane," by Dr. Stephen Smith of the Willard Asylum, was then read in his absence by Mr. Milligan (page 222).

DISCUSSION.

MR. WRIGHT.—I am sure that I speak for all the State Board of Wisconsin in saying that this paper is a very valuable contribution to the question of the care of the chronic insane. We have been working and experimenting in that line for three years. The value of our experiment lies in the fact that we have the chronic insane scattered in small numbers, not to exceed one hundred, on farms where they can have ample opportunity for occupation, and where they get it. It would hardly be possible with us, under this system, to establish artisan industries. The suggestion to reward the labor has not been carried out systematically in Wisconsin. We ought to give payment for services that are worth anything. These chronic insane are often, from the necessities of the case, pauper insane as well. Even if they come from self-supporting families, the very fact of the insanity of the father or mother so reduces the income that they are unable to pay for the care of their insane friends. If the State can pay something for their labor, then it is only fair that it should be done. The medical value of labor for the insane is undoubted.

Our monthly report for September, 1884, shows the possibilities of providing occupation for the insane, when scattered in small communities.* The total gives a fraction less than seventy per cent. of occupation. It shows also almost no restraint. No chained restraint is ever used, and very little mechanical restraint, and seclusion only occasionally. The single case of mechanical restraint in this month's report is against the judgment of the superintendent of the institution where it occurs, but upon the express orders of the county judge. Several of these institutions have open doors, including the largest one, in which also there are no fences or walls.

Occupation for the insane has done with us what Dr. Smith says it will do,—lowered the cost of care, given the insane better health, led to the recovery of several cases, and has also prevented the necessity of restraint.

* The report referred to above will be found on the following page.

Counties.	General Statistics.			Occupation.			Restraints.		Remarks.
	No. inmates at close of month.	No. deaths during the month.	No. discharged as recovered or improved during month.	No. whose labor equals ordinary labor.	Half or more of ordinary labor.	Less than half of ordinary labor.	No. in continuous restraint.	No. temporarily in restraint.	
Brown,	39	0	0	0	12	9	0	0	
Columbia,	47	0	0	0	8	25	0	0	
Dane,	98	1	1	1	33	47	0	1	Seclusion two days.
Dodge,	85	1	1	0	33	47	0	1	Seclusion half day.
Grant,	53	0	1	7	5	32	0	0	
Green,	37	0	2	2	11	20	0	1	
Jefferson,	80	0	0	1	1	10	0	0	Mechanical restraint.
Rock,	73	0	2	11	17	23	0	0	Mechanical restraint.
Sheboygan,	50	0	0	0	5	16	0	0	
Walworth,	38	0	0	2	8	9	0	0	
Winnebago,	45	0	0	1	3	22	0	0	
Totals,	615	2	7	35	129	240	0	3	

Dr. McCOWEN.—I have looked forward to the reading of this paper with great interest, as the subject is an important one from the increasing numbers of the insane to be cared for. Granting that many are undoubtedly equal to earning their own living in part or in whole, thus relieving the public of an unnecessary burden; and granting that, aside from pecuniary considerations, experience seems to show that employment reduces the necessity for restraint and improves both the bodily and the mental condition,—the task of providing suitable employment is, from the peculiarities of the insane condition, one of no little difficulty. Listening intently to the enumeration of the kinds of work which, upon trial, have seemed suitable, I was struck by the fact that occupation for men only has been mentioned. Has it escaped attention that one-half of the insane of the world are women, and that it is equally desirable that their restraint should be diminished and their condition improved? So far as any employment has thus far been provided for them, it has been house-cleaning, scrubbing, sewing, washing, and ironing, the same monotonous round of indoor duties which followed them up to the very doors of the asylum. Statistics go to show that the larger number of insane women are those who, day after day, week after week, year after year, have gone over the same routine of sewing, mending, and scrubbing, without rest or change. If some plan could be devised whereby women might have a change of occupation which would interest them, divert their minds from the old worn channels, give them a fresh impetus toward healthful activity of body and fresh trains of thought, I am persuaded their recovery might be hastened in curable cases, and their existence rendered more tolerable in incurable ones. I desire

to add my testimony to the necessity of this matter being in the hands of the physician and regulated to suit the varying conditions of the individual patient. Closely allied to this subject and worthy of attention is that of mental occupation or diversion. I do not refer to set amusements occurring with unvarying precision on the same identical evenings, year after year, until all entertainment fails and patients merely endure them, but something which shall really divert,—*i.e.*, turn aside into other channels; something which may occupy and exercise the mind, and even in the hopelessly insane stay the approach of fatuity. In some of the British hospitals, I believe, experiments are being made in this direction with encouraging results.

Mr. EMERY.—We have a National Asylum in Washington open to applicants from all parts of the country. On the 5th of this month there were eleven hundred and fifty-four inmates,—two hundred and eighty-nine women and the rest men. There has been a large accession of soldiers and sailors that makes this difference in proportion between the sexes. There are one hundred acres around the buildings, where the patients are allowed to amuse themselves; and I am told by the physician in charge that the exercise and amusement thus afforded are very beneficial to the female portion of the inmates. The men who are able to work are taken out on the farm, where they raise a large quantity of vegetables; for it is a productive as well as an ornamental farm.

Dr. DUTTON.—There are certain principles in the treatment of the insane which we should observe. One of these underlying principles is that they should be treated as sane, if possible. There should be in their minds some idea of compensation for the work they do. It need not always be in money, but they should feel that they have an object in their work. Let *us* work without an object, and labor will become distasteful. So, in amusements, you should not treat them like children, but as if they were competent to enjoy the same kind of entertainment that we who are sane do. By rewarding them for their labor and providing entertainments fit for sane people, we should help to solve the problem of methods.

Dr. BYERS.—There is a great social problem growing out of this subject, involving not only the communities, but those for whom we have failed to make public provision. In Wisconsin, they provide for their insane by counties. They have a State board of charities, that has only the county institutions under its supervision, with a separate board of control for State institutions. Under the State board of charities, the county system seems to work well. Wisconsin can afford them. We could not adopt it. In Ohio, the county system has been, and it is to-day, involved with difficulties that are insuperable to any methods that we can propose to overcome them. We have small, uncomfortable buildings, divided into small, narrow cells,—iron cribs into which the chronic insane are thrust; and these are separated from the main infirmary buildings. There they are left, in cold and nakedness, and abandoned of all decent care. That is not because we are inhuman people, but because of

our system of county care. We elect one man who is to be infirmary director; and the board consists of three men, not selected for any special qualification or general capacity, but men of some political influence or activity, who bring up a back township at an election. It is a mere political machine, standing in the way of any progress that we may hope to make. In our State institutions, we are coming up very largely to the importance of giving the inmates industrial employment. In Athens Asylum, for the past four years there has never been a muff or strap or any kind of mechanical restraint employed, with an average of over six hundred patients in the house; and, by giving them out-door exercise and employment, the necessity for restraints, mechanical or medical, has been obviated. All those who have capacity for industrial employment are put at it. The grounds are new, and the men are employed on the grades and in the farming. It is in that way that we are getting red blood into the veins of these unfortunate people, who, we all know, are apt to be of cachectic appearance. The contrast is wonderful. The last time I was there, a female patient, the worst maniac I ever knew, one who had required seclusion and restraints for years, and whose most violent paroxysms had been subdued by simple manual restraint and vigilant care,—this woman came into chapel and remained a quiet and interested hearer. There was a man, also, that for three years had never been outside of the "strong room"; and no one ever entered it, except when attendants and physicians went in force. He, too, marched into chapel; and the two, clothed, and if not in their right minds, still with minds made better, because brutal restraints had been taken from them and they had been given out-door exercise, sunshine, and air. Ohio cannot do this in her county infirmaries, because it requires good, judicious medical supervision and kind and humane treatment.

Mr. SHORT.—I have the greatest reverence for the opinions of our friend who has just spoken, but I do wish to enter a protest against the acceptance of his declaration that these difficulties with reference to the care of the insane cannot be removed except by State authority. If there are abuses practised upon that most unfortunate class of the community, they should be rectified in the place where they exist and by the people who permit them. If you do not place the responsibility for that correction right on them, you permit one of the greatest wrongs that can exist in society to be fostered till the wrong-doers will be confirmed in the opinion that they are right, and that there is no wrong in it. Public sentiment must correct these evils where they exist. I represent an arm of the law which has to-day under its care thirteen hundred of these unfortunates, and I have had experience in that department for many years. I have seen it when it would break a man's or woman's heart to witness the management of these insane. I have lived to rejoice to see these evils righted. It was not done by going to the governor or to the legislature. But the intelligence and humanity of the community asserted itself, and the acts of public officials had to conform to that higher sentiment. The people

said these abuses must cease ; and five hundred strait-jackets, that had cost two dollars and a half apiece, were cast out into the yard, and burned up. To-day there is no restraint ; and we are negotiating for a thousand acres of land, on which to give those people some employment.

Dr. BYERS.—You are from King's County, N.Y.; and King's County has a board of supervisors. In Ohio, we do not have your laws ; but we are doing the best we can, under our laws, to get these abuses corrected.

Mr. BEASLEY.—I would suggest that the most practical way would be to have a committee to take this subject up and issue a report, embodying suggestions looking toward the employment of the insane. It is a new feature, so far as I am concerned. In my own State, while we have ample provision for the insane up to the present time, and intend to increase it till we have every insane person under proper care and medical treatment, yet we shall be very thankful for any suggestions that may bring these people back to their sane condition.

Dr. HUGHES.—The conception of what ought to be done, in the question of labor for the insane, should be based upon observation and knowledge of their actual condition and needs, and never upon theoretical deductions from self-consciousness. The true principle is to secure labor that shall be congenial and recreative, and that shall always be introduced with the law of kindness, and never coercive.

A paper was read by Mr. A. O. Wright on "The Increase of Insanity" (page 228).

A paper was read by C. H. Hughes, M.D., entitled "Definition and Treatment of Insanity" (page 236).

DISCUSSION.

Dr. HUGHES.—There is another principle to be borne in mind as to the value of labor for the insane,—the principle of fatigue. Muscular fatigue is accompanied by a breaking down of muscular tissue, which is the precedent physiological condition of repair. It is a well-established law of the human economy that waste precedes and is the condition of repair ; that muscular exercise, if not carried too far, is accompanied by an effort on the part of the organism to increase the activity of recuperation ; and the increased repair of muscular tissue produces, reactionally, increased vigor of the waste process. But the essential point is this : that, in certain conditions of mental excitation, what is now known, through the researches of Ferrier, Heitzig, and other physiologists of the day, as the psychomotor areas of the brain become implicated as well as the mind region of the brain exclusively. It is a principle in the management of the insane, during paroxysms of excitement, to remove from the patient all causes of excitement, so far as may be practicable ; and to allow him to go to his room, or conduct him

there, when he is excited; or out on some secure veranda, overlooking an agreeable landscape, that he may spend his excitement with as little irritation from his surroundings as possible. This principle put into application would take such patients during their restive periods and let them exercise until they have worked off the excitement. It was my custom to take them into the woods, and let them walk it off. I had upward of three hundred patients under my care for several years; and it was my custom every day after breakfast to turn them all out of the house, in good weather. All who were able went out. Those of the men for whom it was prudent played ball and other games, and the women croquet, or swung or walked or sat about the grounds. Sometimes, out of the population of three hundred and seventy or more, there would not be more than ten or twelve in the house till the next meal-time. Occasionally, not over five or six (decrepit and infirm) stayed in the house. Those who were not at work on the farm or garden, or with the dairyman, herdsman, or baker, or assisting the teamsters with their teams, or in the stable or elsewhere about the premises, were engaged in some form of divertive recreation, lighter than work, to give exercise to the physical part of the body and rest to the mind. The asylum tract embraced five hundred acres of land; and, the asylum being located some distance from a large market, we kept a number of teams for transportation of patients and supplies, our own dairy and cows, raised sheep and hogs, all of our finest garden supplies, and a good deal of corn and potatoes, and all of the ice required, and put it up ourselves.

Mr. WINES.—In studying the statistics of insanity in the United States, I have observed one fact to which public attention has not, I think, been previously called; namely, that persons who remove from their original environment to a new environment appear to be somewhat more liable to become insane than those who remain in the vicinity and among the people and friends to whom they have from their birth been accustomed. The amount of insanity among foreign immigrants is known to be very much larger in proportion than among our native-born citizens. An examination of the statistics of insanity in natives of one State who remove to another State reveals the same tendency. You will find, I think, that in Missouri, for instance, the ratio of insane people who are natives of Missouri, and are now residents of this State, is less than it is in the case of those born on American soil, but in other States, who have removed to Missouri. I have tabulated the figures published in the Ninth Census, and obtain this result in nearly every State, though there are some exceptions. The difference is slight, but it is demonstrable.

Some of you, doubtless, are aware that Dr. Foster Pratt read a paper before the Public Health Association, when it met at Detroit in 1883, in which he argued that the increase of insanity in our native population is due to foreign immigration. He showed by the census statistics, what no one denies, that the foreign population of this country is more liable to insanity than the native. From

this admitted fact, he infers that the natives inherit it from foreign-born parents. I think that, when his argument is carefully examined, it will be found that there is a want of connection between his premises and his conclusions. No one cause will explain the increase of insanity. Dr. Pratt has, in his praiseworthy zeal to furnish a valid reason for legislation in opposition to pauper immigration, pushed his argument too far. He has also failed to grasp all the conditions of the problem, and ignored facts which must be considered in judging of the truth of his position. The statistics which we have of the increase of insanity in the United States are most untrustworthy; but, such as they are, they seem to refute his conclusion. According to the census, the increase of insanity among the natives has been more rapid than among the foreign-born citizens of this country. I cannot conceive how that is explainable, if his theory is correct.

Another fact must be stated respecting the insanity of our foreign-born population. That population is largely an adult population, and insanity is a disease of adult life. Our native population is made up largely of children, and children are not liable to insanity. To make this comparison between the native and the foreign-born population a fair one, it should be confined to persons above the age of puberty, which would reduce the apparent discrepancy to possibly one-half.

We have been in the habit of supposing that the ratio of insanity in America is far below that of Europe. It may be so, but I am not sure that it is so. According to the Tenth Census of the United States, the ratio of insanity is, I think, equal to that in Great Britain. But it is very difficult to compare the statistics of these specially defective classes in different countries, because we do not know, in the first place, how the statistics are collected, nor, second, how the classes to be enumerated are defined,—where the line of demarcation is drawn. We do not know whether the last census in Great Britain is as imperfect and incomplete as our own census has always heretofore been. We cannot depend with much confidence upon the results obtained by comparative statistics in this field of research.

Q.—Do the English separate the idiots from the insane?

Mr. WINES.—Formerly, they did not. I do not at this moment remember whether or not they were separated in the census of 1881. The definition of idiocy is perhaps more difficult even than that of insanity. Conflicting definitions are given in the statutes of the several States, and in the remarks accompanying the census in different countries. I observed that, at the Guiteau trial, the superintendents of hospitals for the insane varied more widely in their definitions of idiocy than of insanity. There seems to be a lamentable ignorance, on the part of experts in insanity, with respect to idiocy.

Mr. BIDDLE.—A short time ago, in visiting a large county institution in Pennsylvania, the medical superintendent, a gentleman of wide reputation, remarked that it was found necessary to recom-

mend the board of public charities to remove from the county institution to a State institution a large number of the insane, on account of the crowded condition of the county asylum. They passed a resolution to that effect, which was published in the papers, without naming the persons to be sent. For several days afterward, most of the time of the doctor was taken up in answering the requests of the friends of the insane in that institution, begging that those related to them might not be sent to a distant State institution. He commented on the strong feeling existing among the poorer people toward their unfortunate lunatic relatives, and their strong desire to be within visiting distance of them. It seems to me that, if the removal from one State to another has a tendency to increase insanity, the removal of insane patients from one county to a distant asylum in a large State would have a tendency to retard recovery in those already afflicted. It is important to have the insane as near as possible to the members of their family. They naturally look after their proper care. If a county asylum is brought up to be a model asylum, its condition will soon be known; and other communities will insist on their county institution being equally well equipped and managed. Another advantage of the smaller institution is that it is more nearly like a family; and that more freedom is possible than in any large institution, no matter how well managed it may be.

Mr. GARRETT.—It seems to me that the phenomenon spoken of by Mr. Wright and adverted to by Mr. Wines is what we must reasonably expect upon this hypothesis. It may be accounted for by the state of mind which is likely to engender a disposition to wander to a foreign home or to leave the Eastern States and settle in the Western. I think you may take it for granted that the majority of those who leave the old countries and come to this are people who have a restless diathesis. It indicates a certain amount of instability of brain, a predisposition to, if not actual incipient, insanity. Those in a more healthful state of mind are inclined to stay at home. This would account for all the different cases referred to. It would account for more insane among the foreign population than among natives.

Dr. BYERS.—I have been impressed with the suggestion as to change of environment, yet I object to the conclusions reached by Mr. Biddle. These people are now insane. Whether the same thing that produced insanity will aggravate it or will promote a cure is the question. We are to consider them as insane: the environment, or change of it, has produced insanity. Now will the change after insanity has occurred promote cure or aggravate the symptoms?

Mr. BIDDLE.—Of course, the change does not produce insanity in all cases. But, if it has a tendency to produce it, and if you remove one already insane and put him in a condition where another would become insane, it seems to me that the possibility of his being successfully treated would be less than if you took him into

an atmosphere where he would be less likely, if taken well, to become sick.

Dr. BYERS.—That depends on circumstances. There are insane people that the farther you can remove them from home, the better. It depends on the character of the home, and very much upon the nature of the case. There are cases that might receive better care and be cured more promptly, if near their friends. It is often the case that friends aggravate the condition of insanity. That is a question that would have to be considered. I grant that, if you can get a few treated well near home, and the influences of home are healthful, that ought to be the system. But it will occur at once that such arrangement is utterly impracticable under our public system, as in our State, Ohio, where we make no distinctions. The man worth his millions gets nothing better than those worth nothing, in his treatment for insanity. The rich and the poor meet together, and the State is the keeper of them all. In Pennsylvania and New England, they have county organizations and private institutions. We have nothing of that kind in our State.

Mr. SHORT.—Do I understand you that every insane person in your institution is maintained at the expense of the State?

Dr. BYERS.—Exactly so. It is true also of the States of Illinois, Iowa, and Minnesota. The rich people of these States provide these institutions, hence they are charged nothing extra when they become patients.

Mr. NEFF.—The public institutions of Ohio will compare very favorably with the best wards of any paid department of any Eastern institution. The treatment is based on the condition of the patient. There is no pay department in any of our institutions, but the best means are used for the recovery of all.

Miss PUTNAM.—I have been waiting for some one to ask whether one should never use coercion to labor against the will of the patients? Are the insane capable of judging whether they would not sleep better at night, for instance, after doing work for which perhaps they might have a distaste?

Mr. SCARBOROUGH.—In North Carolina, we also provide for all, rich and poor alike, making no distinction. But, at the last session of the legislature, provision was made that those who want special treatment for their friends could pay for it.

I would like to state one fact. Since freedom has been given to the negro and education has been extended, the ratio of insanity among them has been very rapidly increased. I am very sorry to see it, and I am sorry to believe that education has something to do with it.

Dr. BYERS.—May I ask whether it is not a fact that these people are now brought under public care, and are therefore better known, whereas heretofore they were under the care of masters who were obliged to look after them at home?

Mr. SCARBOROUGH.—Yes; but it was very rare to find an insane or idiotic colored person.

Dr. BYERS.—Still, they did exist?

Mr. SCARBOROUGH.—I do not remember but two instances in the county where I was born, before the war. They were provided for by their masters.

Mr. WINES.—One effect of the adoption of the policy of State care for all the insane is not apparent until it is pointed out. Where a distinction is made between public patients and pay-patients, there is sure to be, in the statute, a carefully elaborated system of commitment of patients whose support is paid for from public funds; while the method of commitment of private patients is apt to be lax to a degree which is almost criminal. In point of fact, those most liable to be improperly committed to institutions for the insane are not paupers, but persons who have property. If any class needs protection, it is the wealthy; but, in States which make this distinction, it is precisely the wealthy class which is unprotected. In States where all the insane are equal before the law, on the contrary, where all are supported at public cost, the problem of commitment is simplified: one mode of commitment is sufficient; the same process is necessary for the rich and the poor; the law is uniform in its application, and the peril of improper commitment is therefore less.

Mr. GARRETT.—Miss Putnam's question reminds me of a thought I had in reference to the first paper, as to the employment of the insane. I would not use the term labor. The employment or occupation given to every insane person under care should be especially adapted to the previous life of that particular patient. You cannot lay down any general laws for certain occupations which would apply to all classes of patients. A person used to heavy occupation should be given one kind; the lawyer, the doctor, the lady that has been used to light work, others. I would not call it coercion, yet it seems to me that the kind of coercion which a good doctor always applies to his patients in physical as well as mental disease would properly come into play. He should oblige the patient, mildly and gently, to do whatever is necessary for the patient's good.

Mr. WINES.—The same is true of out-door exercise.

Mr. WRIGHT.—Another point in the recovery or amelioration of the condition of the insane is what may be called education, using that word in the broadest sense. It has not yet been attempted systematically in this country, but we find numerous sporadic attempts at it. This whole matter of employment is the most important part of the question of the education of the insane. The employment should not be considered with reference to the value of their labor and not merely with reference to their physical health, though that is of great value, but that employment is a portion of a system of education which should include more than employment. Taking off restraint is merely negative. The positive part is what we need. In addition to encouraging the insane to do certain forms of manual labor, there is a class of insane who need to be under school attendance, and held to it exactly as children in the schools for feeble-minded are trained. The matter of amusements is also important. There is to be a private asylum opened in about a

month on the border lines of Wisconsin and Illinois, chiefly to receive wealthy insane patients from Chicago. The superintendent has this idea of educating the insane, and he intends to carry out the experiment in a careful and systematic manner.

Remarks were made by Mr. Hicks and Mr. Garrett on the question of the lease system for convicts, which appear on pages 384 and 385.

Adjourned.

ELEVENTH SESSION.

Friday afternoon, Oct. 17.

The Conference met at 3.30 P.M.

Mr. EMERY, on behalf of the delegates from the District of Columbia, thanked the Conference for its acceptance of their invitation to hold its twelfth annual session in the city of Washington.

The President announced as members of the committee to memorialize the Congress of the United States on the subject of the International Penitentiary Congress to be held in Rome, in October, 1885, the following persons: C. D. Randall, of Michigan; Andrew E. Elmore, of Wisconsin; and Dr. A. G. Byers, of Ohio.

Dr. Byers presented the report of the Committee on Organization, which was recommitted, with instructions to add to the standing committees a Committee on Prisons and Penitentiaries. The committee retired, and immediately afterward returned with the added committee; and the report was unanimously accepted, with the following list of officers for the ensuing year:—

President.

PHILIP C. GARRETT, Philadelphia, Pa.

Vice-Presidents.

DR. CHAS. S. HOYT, Albany, N.Y. HON. CHAS. ANDERSON, Kuttawa, Ky.

General Secretaries.

REV. H. H. HART, St. Paul, Minn.

W. J. BAXTER, Lansing, Mich.

Recording Secretary.

PROF. A. O. WRIGHT, Madison, Wis.

Corresponding Secretary.

CADWALADER BIDDLE, Philadelphia, Pa.

Honorary Secretary.

REV. J. L. MILLIGAN, Allegheny, Pa.

State Corresponding Secretaries.

Peter Bryce, M.D.,	Tuscaloosa, Ala.	F. J. Mitchell,	Jackson, Miss.
Dr. C. C. Forbes,	Little Rock, Ark.	Hon. John W. Henry, . .	Jefferson City, Mo.
E. R. Highton,	Alameda, Cal.	J. A. Gillespie,	Omaha, Neb.
Mrs. J. S. Sperry,	Pueblo, Col.	W. H. Stevens,	Carson City, Nev.
Henry E. Burton,	Hartford, Conn.	Rev. S. C. Beane,	Concord, N.H.
Elijah Coffin,	Bismarck, Dak.	E. M. Hunt, M.D., . . .	Trenton, N.J.
William M. Canby,	Wilmington, Del.	Edmund H. Smith, . . .	Albuquerque, N.M.
C. G. Crane,	Mandarin, Fla.	Hon. Wm. R. Stewart, . .	New York City.
Gustavus A. Orr,	Atlanta, Ga.	J. H. Mills,	Raleigh, N.C.
Mrs. J. L. Beveridge, . . .	Evanston, Ill.	Wm. Howard Neff, . . .	Cincinnati, O.
Rev. O. C. M'Culloch, . . .	Indianapolis, Ind.	Bishop Wistar Morris, . .	Portland, Or.
Jennie M'Cowen, M.D., . .	Davenport, Iowa.	Wm. J. Sawyer,	Allegheny, Pa.
Dr. William Nicholson, . . .	Lawrence, Kan.	W. W. Chapin,	Providence, R.I.
P. Caldwell,	Louisville, Ky.	P. E. Griffin, M.D., . . .	Columbia, S.C.
Rev. C. A. Allen,	New Orleans, La.	Hon. J. C. Ferris,	Nashville, Tenn.
Rev. J. K. Mason,	Fryeburg, Me.	Dr. A. N. Denton,	Austin, Tex.
G. S. Griffith,	Baltimore, Md.	Gen. M. M. Bane,	Salt Lake City, Utah.
F. B. Sanborn,	Concord, Mass.	W. G. Fairbank,	Vergennes, Vt.
Levi S. Barbour,	Detroit, Mich.	Hon. H. W. Sheffey, . . .	Staunton, Va.
D. C. Bell,	Minneapolis, Minn.	Geo. W. Caldwell,	Wheeling, W. Va.
Hon. H. H. Giles,		Madison, Wis.	

STANDING COMMITTEES.**On Reports from States.**

Rev. Fred. H. Wines, . . .	Springfield, Ill.	Wm. Howard Neff, . . .	Cincinnati, Ohio.
Chas. F. Donnelly,	Boston, Mass.		

On Preventive Work among Children.

Hon. Wm. P. Letchworth, . .	Buffalo, N.Y.	Mrs. Sarah B. Cooper, . .	San Francisco, Cal.
Hon. C. D. Randall,	Coldwater, Mich.	Miss Ella A. Giles, . . .	Madison, Wis.
Hon. John C. Ferris,	Nashville, Tenn.	Mrs. Sarah Sands Paddock,	Brickchurch, N.J.
Joseph Perkins,	Cleveland, Ohio.	Mrs. Clara T. Leonard, . .	Springfield, Mass.
Dr. B. F. Dixon,	Oxford, N.C.	Mrs. D. H. Johnson, . . .	Milwaukee, Wis.
Mrs. J. L. Beveridge, . . .	Evanston, Ill.	Miss S. E. Minton,	New York City.

On Employment of Juvenile Inmates of Reformatories and Houses of Refuge.

Rev. A. G. Byers,	Columbus, Ohio.	Israel C. Jones,	New York City.
Hon. Andrew E. Elmore, . .	Fort Howard, Wis.	Miss Elizabeth C. Putnam,	Boston, Mass.
Miss Clara Hoffman,	Kansas City, Mo.		

On Charity Organization.

W. Alex. Johnson,	Cincinnati, Ohio.	Levi S. Barbour,	Detroit, Mich.
Hon. Chas. S. Fairchild, . .	New York City.	C. J. Galvin,	Chicago, Ill.
Rev. O. C. M'Culloch, . . .	Indianapolis, Ind.	Miss Zilpha D. Smith, . .	Boston, Mass.
Col. W. F. Beasley,	Oxford, N.C.	Dr. James W. Walk, . . .	Philadelphia, Penn.
Prof. Francis Wayland, . .	New Haven, Conn.	Rev. C. W. Wendte, . . .	Newport, R.I.

On the Organization and Management of Prisons and Penitentiaries.

R. W. M'Claghry, . . . Joliet, Ill.	J. R. Willis, Jefferson City, Mo.
Z. R. Brockway, . . . Elmira, N.Y.	W. J. Hicks, Raleigh, N.C.
W. B. Snell,	Washington, D.C.

On Provision for the Insane.

Dr. John B. Chapin, . . . Philadelphia, Penn.	Dr. C. K. Bartlett, . . . St. Peter, Minn.
Dr. Stephen Smith, . . . New York City.	Dr. Eugene Grissom, . . . Raleigh, N.C.
Dr. J. H. Vivian, . . . Mineral Point, Wis.	Prof. Edward Hitchcock, . . Amherst, Mass.
Dr. W. W. Godding, . . . Washington, D.C.	Dr. Jennie M'Cowen, . . . Davenport, Iowa.
Dr. Richard Gundry, . . . Baltimore, Md.	Dr. William B. Goldsmith, Danvers, Mass.

On Provision for Idiots.

Dr. Isaac N. Kerlin, . . . Elwyn, Penn.	Dr. John Q. Stewart, . . . Frankfort, Ky.
Dr. G. A. Doren, . . . Columbus, Ohio.	Dr. Geo. H. Knight, . . . Faribault, Minn.
H. M. Green,	Lawrence, Kan.

On Prevention of Pauperism.

Frank B. Sanborn, . . . Concord, Mass.	R. Brinkerhoff, . . . Mansfield, Ohio.
A. H. Young, Minneapolis, Minn.	Wm. Richards, Washington, D.C.

On Immigration.

Dr. Charles S. Hoyt, . . . Albany, N.Y.	S. C. Wrightington, . . . Boston, Mass.
Rev. M. McG. Dana, D.D.,	St. Paul, Minn.

Mr. ROUND asked leave, for reasons which he stated, to withdraw from publication the paper read by him on County Jails; and his request, after some discussion, was granted.

Mr. ANDERSON announced that the Committee on Crimes and Penalties had just received from M. Fernand Desportes, the secretary of the National Society of Prisons of France, a paper entitled "Prisons and Penitentiaries in France," which was, on his motion, referred to the Committee on Publication, to be printed in the volume of Proceedings (page 276).

Governor ANDERSON offered the following resolutions, which were unanimously adopted:—

Resolved, That the National Conference of Charities and Correction in the United States acknowledges with thanks the courtesy of the Howard Association of Great Britain in causing to be prepared the interesting and valuable paper communicated to it by its secretary, William Tallack, and congratulates the Howard Association on the great success which has crowned its philanthropic labors.

Resolved, That the National Conference of Charities and Correction in the United States hereby expresses its appreciation of the important services rendered to the cause of prison reform throughout the world by the Société Générale des

Prisons of the French Republic, and that our grateful acknowledgments are due to it for its contribution to the work of this Conference.

On motion of Dr. Byers, the publication of the Proceedings of this Conference was referred to the Executive Committee.

Mr. BEASLEY asked whether some arrangement could not be made by which papers read might be separately printed, in pamphlet form, for distribution.

The President replied that such an arrangement could undoubtedly be made, by any individual, for the separate publication of any one of the papers read.

Mr. MILLIGAN corroborated the statement made by the President, and thought this a practicable and desirable method of placing information before the public.

Mr. WRIGHT added that the printer would strike off any number of copies of any special paper, at the time of publication, if requested to do so and if the money were pledged in advance.

Bishop ROBERTSON, on behalf of the local Committee of Arrangements, invited the Conference to assemble at half-past seven o'clock, as usual, for the purpose of hearing a few words from General Sherman, to be followed by responses from members of the Conference, and then to partake of a collation, which would be served in the hall below. This invitation was accepted; and Bishop Robertson was, on motion of Dr. Byers, requested to make one of the addresses at the evening meeting.

On motion of Mr. Caldwell, it was voted that all papers hereafter read before the Conference must become the property of the Conference, to be published or not, in book or pamphlet form, at the discretion of the Publication Committee.

Mr. NEFF offered the following resolutions, which were adopted by a rising vote :—

Resolved, That we wish our Vice-President, Bishop Robertson, abundant success in his effort to realize the wise and benevolent purposes indicated in the closing paragraphs of his interesting sketch of the public and private charities of this city and State.

Resolved, That the hearty thanks of the National Conference of Charities and Correction are due, and are hereby tendered, to the State and municipal authorities, to the local Committee of Arrangements, to the commissioners of the Exposition, to the gas companies, to the railway companies, to the daily press, and to the citizens of St. Louis generally, for a cordial welcome to the city, for the freedom of the Exposition, for the unique and magnificent illumination of Wednesday evening and the handsome arrangement for witnessing it, for the

facilities for attending and returning from the Conference, for the excellent reports of its proceedings, and for a generous and lavish hospitality.

Mr. EMERY offered the following resolution, which was unanimously adopted:—

Resolved, That the thanks of this Conference be and are hereby tendered to the secretaries and other officers of this Conference for the arduous duties so faithfully performed during the sessions of this Conference.

Mrs. SPENCER offered the following resolution, which was unanimously adopted by a rising vote:—

Resolved, That the thanks of this Conference be extended to our retiring President for his grand services in the preparation for this Conference, his impartial and able administration as our presiding officer, and especially for his generous and wise suggestions concerning the care of helpless women and children.

The President-elect, Mr. Garrett, was then introduced, and in a brief speech expressed his appreciation of the honor conferred upon him, and accepted the position, promising to do his utmost to meet its responsibilities.

Adjourned at 5.30 P.M.

TWELFTH SESSION.

Friday night, Oct. 17.

The Conference met at 7.35 P.M. The President announced the following persons as members of the Executive Committee for the coming year: Philip C. Garrett, F. B. Sanborn, Rev. F. H. Wines, Dr. C. S. Hoyt, and Dr. A. G. Byers.

Dr. HOYT begged to be excused from serving on this committee from lack of time to fulfil its duties. He moved that the name of Hon. W. P. Letchworth be substituted. The motion was carried and the substitution made.

The President declared that there was no further business before the Conference and that the hour had arrived for listening to the addresses of the evening.

A few introductory words from Captain Bent, of the local committee, were followed by a brief address from Mr. Henry Hitchcock, congratulating the Conference on its success (page 307).

Addresses were made by Gen. W. T. Sherman, U. S. A. (page 308), Hon. William P. Letchworth (page 311), Hon. Charles Anderson (page 312), Mr. William Howard Neff (page 314), and Col. W. F. Beasley (page 316).

Rabbi SONNESCHEIN suggested that the Conference should not adjourn until provision had been made for sending greetings to Sir Moses Montefiore, the greatest living philanthropist, who would celebrate his one hundredth birthday on the 26th of October.

Mr. WINES moved that the President of the Conference, in its behalf, should send a cable despatch to Sir Moses Montefiore on the twenty-sixth day of October, expressing the highest appreciation of his liberality, philanthropy, and his service to humanity, and tendering the congratulations of the Conference on his centennial birthday. The motion was passed by a unanimous vote.

Bishop Robertson followed with a short address (page 318).

The newly elected President, Mr. Philip C. Garrett, was called to the chair, and, after a few words (page 318) in reply to the kindly sentiments expressed by Bishop Robertson, declared the Eleventh Conference of Charities and Correction adjourned.

LIST OF MEMBERS.

CALIFORNIA.

HIGHTON, Hon. E. R., State Prison Reform Committee, . . . Alameda.

COLORADO.

SPERRY, Mrs. J. S., Manager Ladies' Benevolent Union Hospital, Pueblo.

CONNECTICUT.

LINDSLEY, Prof. C. A., State Board of Health, . . . New Haven.

DAKOTA.

KOEHLER, CHARLES M., Warden of Penitentiary, . . . Sioux Falls.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

- * EMERY, LYMAN S., Secretary Associated Charities, . . . Washington.
- * PRATT, A. S., President Charity Organization Society, . . . "
- * SPENCER, Mrs. SARA A., Charity Organization Society, . . . "

ILLINOIS.

- ALLYN, ROBERT, LL.D., Principal Southern Normal University, . . Carbondale.
- BEVERIDGE, Mrs. H. M., President Industrial School for Girls, . . Evanston.
- BOSTWICK, Mrs. C. B., Trustee Industrial School for Girls, . . . Mattoon.
- CROSSWELL, J. T., Trustee State Reform School, . . . Pontiac.
- * FISH, W. B., M.D., Supt. Asylum for Feeble-minded Children, . . Lincoln.
- * GALVIN, Rev. E. I., Charity Organization Society, . . . Chicago.
- GRIMSHAW, WILLIAM A., State Board of Charities, . . . Springfield.
- * HARRISON, Mrs. R. L., Superintendent Industrial School for Girls, . . Evanston.
- HASBROUCK, Mrs. A., Vice-President Industrial School for Girls, . . Mattoon.
- * HOBBS, Mrs. J. B., Supt. of Matrons in Police Stations, . . . Chicago.
- HOUTS, Rev. T. F., Chaplain Southern Penitentiary, . . . Menard.
- HUSE, O., Trustee State Reform School, . . . Evanston.
- IVES, Mrs. H., Matron of Southern Penitentiary, . . . Chester.
- MCCLAUGHRV, ROBERT W., Warden State Penitentiary, . . . Joliet.
- McFARLAND, ANDREW, M.D., LL.D., Supt. Oak Lawn Retreat, . . Jacksonville.
- MARTIN, JAMES S., Pres. Commissioners Southern Penitentiary, . . Salem.
- SALTER, JOHN C., Warden of Southern Penitentiary, . . . Chester.
- SCOULLER, J. D., M.D., Superintendent State Reform School, . . Pontiac.
- SCOULLER, Mrs. J. D., . . . "
- RAUCH, JOHN H., M.D., Secretary State Board of Health, . . . Springfield.

State or Territorial delegates are marked thus *.

WARDNER, HORACE, M.D., Supt. Southern Hospital for Insane, . . .	Anna.
WARDNER, MRS. LOUISA R., State Ag't Industrial School for Girls, . . .	"
WINES, REV. FRED. H., Secretary State Board of Charities, . . .	Springfield.
WINES, MRS. FRED. H.,	"

INDIANA.

* ALDEN, LYMAN P., Superintendent Rose Orphan Home,	Terre Haute.
BREEDEN, REV. H. O., Society for Organizing Charity,	"
CHARLTON, ALICE R., Matron Reform School for Boys,	Plainfield.
* CHARLTON, T. J., Superintendent Reform School for Boys,	"
* WHITE, J. W., M.D., Asylum for Feeble-minded Children,	"

IOWA.

* MCCOWEN, JENNIE, M.D.,	Davenport.
------------------------------------	------------

KANSAS.

GREENE, H. M., Superintendent Asylum for Feeble-minded, . . .	Lawrence.
---	-----------

KENTUCKY.

ANDERSON, HON. CHARLES, ex-Governor of Ohio,	Kuttawa.
* CALDWELL, P., Superintendent Houses of Refuge,	Louisville.
* SADD, MRS. J. M., Superintendent of Sadd Mission,	"
SKENE, ROBERT, Agent Charity Organization Society,	"
* STEWART, JOHN Q. A., M.D., Superintendent Institution for Training and Educating Feeble-minded Children,	Frankfort.

LOUISIANA.

LOEBER, F., M.D., Surgeon Tower Infirmary,	New Orleans.
--	--------------

MARYLAND.

* MORRIS, JOHN, M.D., State Prisoners' Aid Association,	Baltimore.
---	------------

MASSACHUSETTS.

DURGIN, S. H., M.D., Chairman Board of Health,	Boston.
FALLON, JOHN, Member of State Board,	Lawrence.
NOBLE, REUBEN, Member of State Board,	Westfield.
PUTNAM, MISS E. C., Trustee State Primary and Reform School, .	Boston.
SMITH, MISS ZILPHA D., Registrar Associated Charities,	"
THWING, MISS ANNIE H., Associated Charities,	"
WALCOTT, H. P., M.D., State Board Health, Lunacy, and Charity,	Cambridge.

MICHIGAN.

BARBOUR, LEVI L., State Board,	Detroit.
BAXTER, WITTER J., Secretary State Board,	Lansing.
* D'ARCAMBAL, MRS. AGNES L., Prison Missionary,	Kalamazoo.
* DEWING, MRS. J. A., Secretary Children's Home,	"
FOSTER, JOHN N., Superintendent State Public School,	Coldwater.
FOSTER, MRS. JOHN N.,	"
* GILLESPIE, RT. REV. GEO. D., Chairman State Board Corrections and Charities,	Grand Rapids.

GOWER, C. A., Superintendent Reform School,	Lansing.
HENDERSON, Rev. C. R., Association of Charities,	Detroit.
MORAN, JOHN V., Board of Inspectors, House of Correction,	"
* NICHOLSON, Capt. JOSEPH, Superintendent House of Correction,	"
* RANDALL, C. D., Board of Control, State Public Schools,	Coldwater.
RANDALL, Mrs. C. D.,	"
WHEELER, JOHN J., State Board,	East Saginaw.

MINNESOTA.

BARTLETT, C. K., M.D., Superintendent First Insane Hospital,	St. Peter.
BELL, D. C., State Board of Corrections and Charities,	Minneapolis.
BERRY, Gen. C. H., State Board of Corrections and Charities,	Winona.
* DANA, M. McG., D.D., Vice-President State Board Corrections and Charities,	St. Paul.
HART, Rev. H. H., Sec. State Board Corrections and Charities,	"
HEWITT, C. N., M.D., Secretary State Board of Health,	Red Wing.
INGERSOLL, D. W., President Trustees State Reform School,	St. Paul.
* JONES, E. S.,	Minneapolis.
JONES, Mrs. E. S.,	"
* KNIGHT, GEORGE H., M.D., Superintendent State School for Imbeciles and Idiots,	Faribault.
LEONARD, W. H., M.D., Member State Lunacy Commission,	Minneapolis.
* LUDDEN, J. D.,	St. Paul.
REYNOLDS, REUBEN, State Board of Corrections and Charities,	Crookston.
RIHELDAFFER, J. G., D.D., Superintendent State Reform School,	St. Paul.
WILLIAMS, NELSON, Superintendent of the Poor,	Minneapolis.

MISSOURI.

BARNARD, Mrs., Secretary Girls' Industrial Home,	St. Louis.
BENT, Capt. SILAS,	"
BERNHEIMER, MARCUS,	"
BOYD, W. W., D.D.,	"
BRIGGS, CHARLES F., M.D.,	"
BRADY, Very Reverend P. P.,	"
BRYANT, THOMAS V.,	Kansas City.
BUDD, Mrs. REBECCA P., President Protestant Orphans' Asylum,	St. Louis.
CHAMBERS, CHARLES R., Mullanphy Hospital,	"
CORBITT, JAMES M., Provident Association,	"
CORBITT, Mrs. S. M., Girls' Industrial Home,	"
* COUZINS, PHOEBE, LL.B., Miss,	"
CRITTENDEN, Gov. T. T.,	Jefferson City
CULKIN, THOMAS P., Clerk at Workhouse,	St. Louis.
CUPPLES, SAMUEL,	"
DEAN, D. V., M.D., Superintendent City Hospital,	"
DELAFIELD, WALLACE,	"
DIX, Miss M. O., Secretary Red Cross Association,	"
DONALDSON, JOHN W., Commis'r Charities and Penal Institutions,	"
DONOVAN, FRANK J., Little Sisters of the Poor,	"
DONOVAN, JOSEPH T., Catholic Charities,	"

DRAKE, GEORGE S., Director Provident Association,	St. Louis.
ELIOT, Mrs. H. W.,	"
ELIOT, W. G., D.D., Chairman Local Committee,	"
EWING, WILLIAM L., Mayor of the City,	"
* FOY, PETER L., Catholic Charities,	"
FRANK, AUG.,	"
FRANKLIN, JOS.,	"
* FURGASON, F. M., Provident Association,	Kansas City.
FUSZ, LOUIS, President St. Vincent de Paul Society,	St. Louis.
GOTTSCALK, Rev. A., City Missionary,	Kansas City.
* HALEY, Rev. T. P.,	" "
HARDAWAY, Mrs. W. A., Sec. Augusta Free Hosp. for Children,	St. Louis.
HARRISON, EDWIN,	"
HENRY, Judge JOHN W.,	Jefferson City.
HOFFMAN, Mrs. CLARA, Pres. W. C. T. U. Charity Kindergarten,	Kansas City.
HOLMES, Mrs. CHARLES, President Home for the Friendless,	St. Louis.
HUGHES, C. H., M.D., Consulting Physician to City and Woman's Hospitals,	"
KENNARD, SAMUEL A.,	"
* KRAUSKOPF, Rabbi JOSEPH, Poor Man's Free Labor Bureau,	Kansas City.
* LACK, Rev. FREDERICK, Superintendent Provident Association,	St. Louis.
LESLIE, ANDREW, Red Cross Association,	"
MCINTIRE, J. W., Manager Industrial Friendly Inn,	"
McKITTRICK, Mrs. MARY W., Mission Free School,	"
MCLEAN, Mrs. J. E., Secretary Episcopal Orphans' Home,	"
MASON, ISAAC M.,	"
MATTHEWS, LEONARD, Com. Charities and Penal Institutions,	"
MESSING, Rev. H. S., United Hebrew Relief Association,	"
MOORE, Rev. GEORGE, St. Charles County Asylum,	St. Charles.
MORGAN, GEORGE H., Secretary Provident Association,	St. Louis.
MORTON, Mrs. R. H., Secretary Protestant Orphan Asylum,	"
MURPHY, M. J., St. Ann's Children's and Mullanphy Hospitals,	"
NICCOLS, Rev. S. J.,	"
PAGE, I. C., M.D., President Board of Charities,	"
PARTRIDGE, GEORGE, Provident Association,	"
* ROBERTSON, Rt. Rev. C. F., D.D., LL.D.,	"
SHERMAN, Gen. W. T.,	"
SNOW, Prof. M. S., Secretary Local Committee,	"
SNYDER, Rev. JOHN, Free Mission School,	"
* SONNESCHEIN, Rabbi S. H.,	"
SPAUNHORST, HENRY I., Catholic Charitable Institutions,	"
STEVENS, CHARLES W., M.D., Superintendent Insane Asylum,	"
STURGEON, ISAAC H.,	"
THOMSON, Mrs. JNO., President Girls' Industrial Home,	"
TODD, C. A., M.D.,	"
TUCKER, Miss M. E., Mission Free School,	"
* WATERHOUSE, S., LL.D.,	"
WILLIS, J. R., Warden State Penitentiary,	Jefferson City.
WOODWARD, Prof. C. M.,	St. Louis.
YEATMAN, JAMES E., Soldiers' Orphan Home, Humane Soc., etc.,	"

NEBRASKA.

* DINSMORE, Mrs. O. C., President Home of Friendless,	Omaha.
GILLESPIE, J. A., Superintendent Institution for Deaf and Dumb,	"
HOWE, Rev. P. W., Chaplain Penitentiary,	"
* PEARCE, I. N., Superintendent of Poor of Douglas County,	"

NEW JERSEY.

HUNT, EZRA M., M.D., State Board of Health,	Trenton.
LAVERTY, P., Superintendent State Prison,	"

NEW YORK.

BAGG, JAS. L., Bureau of Charities,	Syracuse.
BAGG, Mrs. JAS. L.,	"
BROOKS, ERASTUS, Nursery and Child's Hospital,	New York.
BUSCH, FREDERICK, Superintendent Erie County Almshouse,	Buffalo.
CARPENTER, E. M., Superintendent Juvenile Asylum,	New York.
CARPENTER, Mrs. E. M.,	"
FAIRCHILD, CHARLES S., Pres. State Charities Aid Association, . .	"
FAIRCHILD, Mrs. HELEN L., Secretary Children's Comte. State Charities Aid Association,	"
FAY, JAMES H., Manager House Refuge, Randall's Island,	"
FULLER, CHARLES W., County Superintendent of Poor,	Buffalo.
FULTON, LEVI S., Superintendent Western House of Refuge,	Rochester.
HALLOCK, EDWARD H., Principal of Schools, Randall's Island, . .	New York.
HOYT, CHARLES S., M.D., Secretary State Board of Charities, . .	Albany.
HOYT, Mrs. CHARLES S.,	"
JONES, ISRAEL C., Supt. House of Refuge, Randall's Island, . . .	New York.
JONES, Mrs. ISRAEL C.,	"
LETCHWORTH, Hon. W. P., President State Board of Charities, . .	Buffalo.
MATHEWS, JAMES, Supt. Health Home, Children's Aid Society, . .	New York.
MATHEWS, Mrs. E. A., Matron Health Home, Children's Aid Soc., .	"
ROUND, W. M. F., Secretary National Prison Association, etc., . .	"
SHORT, JOSEPH, Jr., Superintendent Department Charities and Corrections, Kings County,	Brooklyn.
SKINNER, JOHN W., Children's Aid Society,	New York.
STEWART, WILLIAM R., Commissioner State Board Charities, . . .	"
STEWART, Mrs. WILLIAM R.,	"

NORTH CAROLINA.

BEASLEY, W. F., President Confederate Home Association,	Oxford.
DIXON, B. F., M.D., Superintendent Masonic Orphan Asylum, . . .	"
HICKS, W. J., Warden State Penitentiary,	Raleigh.
SCARBOROUGH, JOHN C., State Superintendent Public Instruction, . .	"

OHIO.

BYERS, Rev. A. G., Secretary State Board of Charities,	Columbus.
BYERS, ALBERT G., Jr.,	"
CHIDLAW, Rev. B. W., Trustee Boys' Reform School at Lancaster, .	Cleves.
DALTON, JAMES, Director House of Refuge,	Cincinnati.
DOREN, G. A., M.D., Supt. Institution for Feeble-minded,	Columbus.

DUTTON, C. F., M.D., Society for Organizing Charities,	Cleveland.
FILLER, H. C., Superintendent Franklin County Infirmary, . . .	
FILLER, Mrs. H. C.,	
JOHNSON, W. ALEXANDER, General Sec. Associated Charities, . .	Cincinnati.
OLIVER, HENRY, Superintendent House of Refuge,	"
MCDONALD, ALMON A., Superintendent House of Refuge, . . .	Toledo.
NEFF, WILLIAM HOWARD, Member State Board of Charities, . .	Cincinnati.
NEFF, Miss ISABEL HOWARD,	"
SHUNK, Mrs. A. H., Matron Protestant Orphan Asylum, . . .	Cleveland.
WEBB, J., Jr., Director House of Refuge,	Cincinnati.

PENNSYLVANIA.

BIDDLE, CADWALADER, Secretary Board Public Charities, . . .	Philadelphia.
BONSALL, AMOS, House of Refuge,	"
DONEHOE, Rev. E. R., Delegate Allegheny County Prison Society,	Pittsburg.
GARRETT, PHILIP C., State Board of Public Charities,	Philadelphia.
KERLIN, ISAAC N., M.D., Supt. Inst. for Feeble-minded Children,	Elwyn.
LYSLE, ADDISON, Secretary of Workhouse,	Pittsburg.
MCNEILL, HUGH, President of Workhouse,	Allegheny.
MILLER, N. DUBOIS, House of Refuge,	Philadelphia.
MILLIGAN, Rev. J. L., Chaplain Western Penitentiary,	Allegheny.
SAWYER, WILLIAM J., State Board of Public Charities,	"
WARNER, HENRY, Superintendent Allegheny Co. Workhouse, . .	Hoboken.
WHITNEY, THOMAS J., Society for Alleviating Miseries of Prisons,	Philadelphia.

TENNESSEE.

FERRIS, Judge JOHN C., House of Refuge,	Nashville.
GOODLETT, M. C., President Humane Society,	"
GOODLETT, Mrs. M. C., Manager Protestant Orphan Asylum, . .	"
LANIER, J. W., County Almshouse Superintendent,	"
LINDSLEY, J. BERRIEN, M.D., Secretary State Board of Health, .	"
* MCREE, Judge R. C.,	Chattanooga.
PORTER, Mrs. FELICIA G., Pres. Protestant Orphans' Home, . .	Nashville.

WISCONSIN.

BINTLIFF, Gen. JAMES, State Board of Supervision,	Darlington.
COBB, D. A., Steward Industrial School for Girls,	Milwaukee.
COBB, Mrs. MARY E. ROCKWELL, Supt. Industrial School for Girls,	"
* DAWES, Major W. J., U.S.A.,	"
* DAWES, Mrs. W. J.,	"
ELMORE, ANDREW E., President State Board of Charities, . . .	Fort Howard.
* GILES, Miss ELLA A.,	Madison.
GILES, H. H., Member State Board,	"
* JOHNSON, Mrs. D. H., Manager Industrial School for Girls, . .	Milwaukee.
KERSTEN, Rev. NORBERT, Manager St. Joseph's Home,	Green Bay.
* OLIN, Mrs. D. A., Trustee Taylor Orphan Asylum,	Racine.
* PENDLETON, Mrs. J., Solicitor St. Luke's Charitable Hospital, .	"
REEVE, J. T., M.D., Secretary State Board of Health,	Appleton.
VIVIAN, J. H., M.D., State Board,	Mineral Point.
WRIGHT, A. O., Secretary State Board,	Madison.

INDEX OF SPEAKERS AND WRITERS.

- Almquist, G. F., 190.
 Anderson, Charles, 312, 322, 353, 372, 390, 405.
 Arenal, Madame Concepcion, 165.
 Atkinson, Rev. G. H., D.D., 52.
 Austin, Charles B., 22.
 Bagg, Mrs. James L., 361.
 Baker, T. B. L., 200.
 Bane, Gen. M. M., 54.
 Barbour, Levi L., 342, 346, 363.
 Barnard, Mrs. Clara, 354.
 Baxter, W. J., 35.
 Beasley, W. F., 316, 390, 397, 406.
 Bent, Capt. Silas, 319, 353.
 Berry, C. H., 326, 327.
 Biddle, Cadwalader, 381, 399, 400.
 Bonsall, Amos, 343, 346.
 Brace, C. Loring, 150.
 Bryce, Dr., 20.
 Byers, A. G., 51, 352, 361, 366, 370, 373, 380, 381, 395, 397, 400, 401, 403, 406.
 Caldwell, P., 406.
 Carpenter, E. M., 377.
 Chapin, W. W., 53.
 Chidlaw, Rev. E. W., 349, 371.
 Cobb, Mrs. M. E. R., 355, 357, 358.
 Coffin, Elijah, 22.
 Cousins, Phoebe, 325.
 Crittenden, Hon. T. T., 1.
 Dana, M. McG., D.D., 329, 369.
 D'Arcambal, Mrs. Agnes L., 351.
 Desportes, Fernand, 276.
 Doren, Dr. G. A., 367, 368.
 Dutton, Dr. C. F., 332, 343, 395.
 Elmore, A. E., 84, 319, 346, 352.
 Eliot, Rev. W. G., D.D., 1.
 Emery, Lyman S., 26, 73, 342, 395, 403, 407.
 Ewing, Hon. W. L., 4.
 Fairbank, W. G., 57, 100.
 Fairchild, Charles S., 65, 329, 331, 334, 344.
 Ferris, Jno. C., 54, 360, 362, 365.
 Filler, H. C., 371.
 Foster, John N., 132.
 Foy, Hon. Peter L., 159, 371, 377.
 Galvin, E. I., 322, 336.
 Garrett, Philip C., 4, 52, 312, 323, 342, 385, 400, 402, 407.
 Giles, H. H., 58, 295.
 Gillespie, Rev. George D., 345, 366.
 Gillespie, J. A., 43.
 Gottschalk, Rev. A., 379.
 Greene, H. M., 264.
 Grimshaw, William A., 27, 363.
 Haley, Rev. T. P., 325, 328.
 Hart, H. H., 41, 143, 370, 379.
 Henderson, Rev. C. R., 80.
 Hicks, J. W., 383, 384.
 Highton, E. K., 21, 390.
 Hitchcock, Henry, 307.
 Hobbs, Mrs. J. B., 293, 350.
 Hoffman, Mrs. Clara, 351, 355.
 Howe, Rev. P. W., 325, 372, 380.
 Hoyt, Dr. C. S., 46, 326, 327, 407.
 Hughes, C. H., M.D., 236, 397.
 Ingersoll, D. W., 349.
 Jenkins, Frederick L., 285.
 Johnson, W. Alexander, 77, 330, 334, 341.
 Jones, Israel C., 372.
 Kanouse, Theodore D., 22.
 Kerlin, Isaac N., M.D., 246.
 Knight, Dr. George H., 367.
 Koehler, Charles M., 22, 389.
 Krauskopf, Rabbi, 333.
 Lack, Rev. Frederick, 323, 329.
 Laverty, P. H., 45, 87.
 Letchworth, William P., 9, 311, 327, 340.
 Maddison, Arthur G., 195.
 Matthews, James, 329, 355.
 McCowen, Dr. Jennie, 368, 394.
 McRee, Judge R. C., 391.
 Milligan, J. L., 374, 406.
 Moldenhauer, Alexandre de, 177.
 Neff, William Howard, 49, 314, 401, 406.
 Paddock, Sarah Sands, 207.
 Partridge, George, 332.
 Pratt, A. S., 332.
 Putnam, Elizabeth C., 123, 352, 359, 401.
 Randall, C. D., 115, 325, 353, 355, 382.
 Reemelin, Charles, 92.
 Riheldaffer, J. G., D.D., 348, 350.
 Robertson, Bishop C. F., 59, 318, 320, 406.
 Round, W. M. F., 378, 383, 390, 405.
 Sadd, Mrs. J. N., 379.
 Salter, John C., 388.
 Sanborn, F. B., 29, 300.
 Scarborough, Mr., 353, 374, 390, 391, 401, 402.
 Scouller, J. D., 102, 352.
 Sherman, Gen. William T., 308.
 Short, Joseph, Jr., 335, 396, 401.
 Shunk, Mrs. A. H., 360, 361.
 Skene, Robert, 340.
 Smith, Stephen, M.D., 222.
 Smith, Zulpha D., 69, 329, 338.
 Sonneschein, Rabbi, 326, 378, 408.
 Spauhorst, H. I., 331.
 Spencer, Sara A., 24, 350, 370, 381, 407.
 Sperry, Mrs. J. S., 352.
 Stewart, Dr. J. Q. A., 366, 367.
 Tallack, William, 272.
 Tufts, Gardiner, 352.
 Vivian, Dr. J. H., 348.
 Wardner, Mrs. Louisa R., 351, 362.
 Warner, Henry, 375, 377.
 Welch, Rev. T. R., D.D., 20.
 Wheeler, George A., 27.
 Willis, J. R., 385, 386.
 Wines, F. H., 7, 20, 320, 337, 346, 363, 369, 370, 373, 374, 391, 398, 399, 402, 408.
 Woodward, C. M., 358.
 Wright, A. O., 225, 322, 324, 331, 346, 351, 357, 363, 370, 373, 389, 393, 402, 406.

APPENDIX.

SOME RESULTS OF THE SPECIAL INQUIRY MADE IN THE TENTH CENSUS INTO THE NUMBER AND CONDITION OF THE DEFECTIVE, DEPENDENT, AND DELIN- QUENT CLASSES.

By the courtesy of the Acting Superintendent of Census, Mr. George W. Richards, I am permitted to lay before the Conference, in printed form, some of the results reached in the investigation of which I have had the general oversight, in connection with the present census. This investigation is now nearly completed. The full tables, including many equally important to which no allusion is here made, will be published by the government, with a text and illustrations, and can be obtained only through United States senators and members of Congress.

NUMBER INCLUDED IN THE ENUMERATION, JUNE 1, 1880.

The following table gives the total number of those enumerated as belonging to the defective, dependent, and delinquent classes. The number stated as inmates of benevolent institutions is only approximately correct, the exact number having not yet been ascertained. The same uncertainty necessarily exists as to the total number.

From the total, as here stated, must be deducted the duplications (persons belonging to more than one class, *e.g.*, insane in almshouses etc.), of whom there are about 21,000 or 22,000, which would make the total of all classes about 445,000.

	Total.	NATIVE WHITE.		FOREIGN WHITE.		COLORED.	
		Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
Insane	91,900	29,134	30,511	12,450	13,708	2,807	3,349
Idiots	76,895	37,108	26,225	2,320	1,663	5,881	3,698
Blind	48,928	17,923	15,128	4,984	3,243	3,841	3,809
Deaf and dumb	33,878	14,879	12,425	1,894	1,463	1,794	1,423
Paupers (out-door)	21,595	7,581	8,085	1,649	2,013	1,060	1,207
Paupers (in almshouses)	66,203	19,186	18,417	13,490	9,393	2,888	2,829
In benevolent institutions	54,816	21,602	24,426	2,801	4,445	762	780
Prisoners	58,609	28,048	1,708	10,056	2,049	15,500	1,248
Juveniles in reformatories	11,468	7,453	1,787	789	191	1,016	232
Total	464,351	182,914	138,712	50,433	38,168	35,549	18,575

IN COMPARISON WITH PREVIOUS CENSUSES.

Comparisons with any previous census are unsatisfactory and misleading, since far greater pains has been taken in the present census than ever before to obtain a complete enumeration of these special classes. As convenient for reference, however, a comparative statement is here given. The lines and columns which are blank represent particulars not contained in the published volumes of the census. The insane were not separately enumerated in 1840, but the number stated as insane includes also the idiotic. No attempt has ever before been made to discriminate paupers in almshouses from the out-door poor.

	Total.	Male.	Female.	Native.	Foreign.	White.	Colored.
INSANE.							
Sixth census (1840).....	16,804					14,808	2,296
Seventh census (1850).....	15,610	7,899	7,711	13,559	2,051	14,972	638
Eighth census (1860).....	24,042	11,847	12,195	18,258	5,784	23,276	766
Ninth census (1870).....	37,432	18,219	19,213	26,205	11,227	35,610	1,822
Tenth census (1880).....	91,969	44,391	47,568	65,625	26,334	85,803	6,166
IDIOTS.							
Seventh census (1850).....	15,787	9,149	6,638	15,187	600	14,257	1,530
Eighth census (1860).....	18,300	11,080	7,850	17,809	1,121	16,982	1,978
Ninth census (1870).....	24,527	14,485	10,042	22,882	1,645	21,324	3,203
Tenth census (1880).....	76,895	45,309	31,586	72,888	4,007	67,316	9,579
BLIND.							
Fifth census (1830).....	5,444					3,974	1,470
Sixth census (1840).....	7,016					5,024	1,992
Seventh census (1850).....	9,794	5,455	4,339	8,993	801	7,978	1,816
Eighth census (1860).....	12,658	7,227	5,431	10,874	1,784	10,729	1,929
Ninth census (1870).....	20,320	11,343	8,977	17,043	3,277	16,966	3,354
Tenth census (1880).....	48,928	26,748	22,180	40,509	8,329	41,278	7,650
DEAF AND DUMB.							
Fifth census (1830).....	6,106					5,263	743
Sixth census (1840).....	7,665					6,684	981
Seventh census (1850).....	9,803	5,418	4,385	9,299	504	9,136	667
Eighth census (1860).....	12,821	7,124	5,697	11,759	1,062	11,856	965
Ninth census (1870).....	16,205	8,916	7,289	14,869	1,336	14,907	1,298
Tenth census (1880).....	33,878	18,567	15,311	30,507	3,371	30,661	3,217
PAUPERS.							
Seventh census (1850).....	50,353			36,916	13,437		
Eighth census (1860).....	82,942			50,483	32,459		
Ninth census (1870).....	76,737			53,339	22,798	67,337	9,400
Tenth census (1880).....	87,798	45,854	41,944	61,253	26,545	79,814	7,984
PRISONERS.							
Seventh census (1850).....	6,737			4,326	2,411		
Eighth census (1860).....	19,086			10,143	8,943		
Ninth census (1870).....	32,901			24,173	8,728	24,845	8,056
Tenth census (1880).....	58,609	53,604	5,005	45,802	12,807	41,861	16,748

NUMBER BY STATES.

States and Territories.	Insane.	Idiots.	Idiots.	Deaf and dumb.	Out-door poor.	Paupers in almshouses.	In benevolent institutions.	Prisons.	Juvenile delinquents.
The United States	91,060	76,896	48,928	33,878	21,505	66,203	54,816	58,609	11,468
Alabama.....	1,521	2,223	1,399	693	279	514	1,353
Arizona.....	21	11	27	7	4	67
Arkansas.....	789	1,374	972	489	85	105	756
California.....	2,503	507	644	382	77	1,594	2,647	165
Colorado.....	99	77	104	85	1	46	380
Connecticut.....	1,723	817	613	565	381	1,418	718	429
Dakota.....	72	80	63	63	24	60
Delaware.....	198	269	127	84	3	387	81
District of Columbia.....	938	107	164	169	184	381	168
Florida.....	253	369	215	118	62	45	269
Georgia.....	1,697	2,433	1,634	819	728	550	1,809
Idaho.....	16	23	6	7	10	7	32
Illinois.....	5,134	4,170	2,615	2,202	591	3,684	3,320	217
Indiana.....	3,548	4,726	2,238	1,764	913	3,052	1,613	463
Iowa.....	2,544	2,314	1,310	1,052	968	1,165	803	257
Kansas.....	1,000	1,083	748	651	220	355	1,296
Kentucky.....	2,784	3,513	2,116	1,275	693	1,366	1,398	223
Louisiana.....	1,002	1,053	845	524	141	1,066	144
Maine.....	1,542	1,325	797	455	1,706	1,505	405	116
Maryland.....	1,857	1,319	946	671	147	1,187	1,259	759
Massachusetts.....	5,127	2,031	1,733	978	954	4,533	3,576	726
Michigan.....	2,796	2,181	1,289	1,166	554	1,746	1,912	314
Minnesota.....	1,145	729	448	500	269	227	426	112
Mississippi.....	1,147	1,579	1,071	606	202	345	1,311
Missouri.....	3,310	3,372	2,258	1,598	321	1,477	2,041	247
Montana.....	59	15	12	9	76
Nebraska.....	480	356	220	267	53	113	374
Nevada.....	31	18	24	10	1	95	199
New Hampshire.....	1,056	703	412	221	839	1,198	269	111
New Jersey.....	2,405	1,056	829	527	518	2,462	1,573	438
New Mexico.....	153	122	358	70	37	40
New York.....	14,055	6,084	5,013	3,762	2,817	12,452	8,728	3,842
North Carolina.....	2,028	3,142	1,873	1,032	668	1,275	1,570
Ohio.....	7,286	6,460	2,960	2,301	480	6,974	2,538	1,051
Oregon.....	378	181	87	102	31	51	233
Pennsylvania.....	8,304	6,497	3,884	3,079	2,502	9,184	4,833	814
Rhode Island.....	684	234	300	150	27	526	317	180
South Carolina.....	1,112	1,588	1,100	564	187	519	626
Tennessee.....	2,404	3,533	1,026	1,108	308	1,136	2,100	12
Texas.....	1,564	2,276	1,375	771	322	210	3,163	8
Utah.....	151	148	126	118	33	58
Vermont.....	1,015	803	486	212	908	655	258	149
Virginia.....	2,411	2,794	1,710	998	1,015	2,117	1,543
Washington.....	135	47	47	24	6	11	81
West Virginia.....	982	1,367	625	520	486	711	380
Wisconsin.....	2,526	1,785	1,075	1,079	1,010	1,018	689	523
Wyoming.....	4	2	4	11	9	74

AGES BY SINGLE YEARS.

The following are the ascertained ages of the several classes enumerated, by single ages, grouped for the five leading divisions: infancy, under six years; childhood, six years old and under sixteen; youth, sixteen years and under twenty-one; maturity, twenty-one and under sixty; decline, sixty and over. Children of school age include all who are six years old and under twenty-one.

	Insane.	Idiots.	Blind.	Deaf mutes.	Out-door poor	Paupers in almshouses.	In charitable institutions.	Prisoners.	Juvenile delinquents.	Total.
	91,959	76,895	48,928	33,878	21,595	66,203	54,816	58,609	11,468	464,351
Under 1 year.....		84	108	30	170	1,034	1,173	1	...	2,600
1 year		213	153	49	205	682	797	7	1	2,107
2 years		430	195	174	298	764	910	1	3	2,775
3 years		685	198	269	328	675	1,187	2	2	3,346
4 years		893	280	419	358	695	1,793	3	6	4,447
5 years		1,063	277	496	385	661	2,213	2	17	5,114
Under 6 years.....		3,368	1,211	1,437	1,744	4,511	8,073	16	29	20,389
6 years		1,232	312	658	414	629	2,992	4	26	6,267
7 years		1,424	352	841	367	642	3,569	3	137	7,335
8 years		1,603	431	1,085	411	600	3,879	4	225	8,238
9 years		1,550	451	1,173	364	520	4,439	9	416	8,922
10 years		2,136	519	1,267	396	525	4,741	21	773	10,378
11 years		1,680	453	1,050	319	381	4,136	28	1,017	9,054
12 years	3	2,441	612	1,051	310	431	3,784	72	1,315	10,019
13 years	43	2,070	570	950	254	339	2,887	95	1,601	8,809
14 years	98	2,400	576	1,019	213	307	2,141	205	1,707	8,666
15 years	188	2,141	544	952	178	287	1,338	292	1,539	7,509
6 to 15 years.....	332	18,677	4,820	10,046	3,216	4,661	33,956	733	8,756	85,197
16 years	261	2,261	601	1,021	152	315	761	611	1,242	7,224
17 years	345	2,000	521	991	118	313	714	1,000	796	6,898
18 years	615	2,566	647	1,133	109	453	447	1,833	382	8,185
19 years	630	2,000	550	923	112	466	384	2,265	159	7,489
20 years	1,001	2,864	629	945	114	642	330	2,561	72	9,161
16 to 20 years.....	2,852	11,691	2,948	5,013	605	2,188	2,636	8,270	2,654	38,857
21 years	984	2,197	500	767	111	494	189	2,803	16	8,061
22 years	1,283	2,564	523	782	137	658	209	3,194	3	9,303
23 years	1,361	2,128	498	675	116	677	203	3,166	1	8,825
24 years	1,549	1,984	510	676	146	692	182	3,092	2	8,833
25 years	2,046	2,632	549	598	198	993	265	3,248	10,599
26 years	1,717	1,660	396	593	137	727	151	2,656	8,037
27 years	1,645	1,407	430	505	115	698	96	2,434	1	7,301
28 years	2,044	1,698	441	574	190	867	146	2,584	8,544
29 years	1,572	863	361	358	151	616	104	1,865	5,888
30 years	3,406	2,993	642	773	334	1,543	263	2,744	2	12,700
31 years	1,583	739	281	315	119	600	65	1,397	5,099
32 years	1,993	1,062	376	378	165	739	91	1,540	6,334
33 years	1,862	857	356	334	193	728	71	1,251	5,662
34 years	1,766	797	367	341	160	658	79	1,096	5,254
35 years	3,414	2,021	639	549	329	1,455	181	1,807	10,395
36 years	2,167	834	472	389	203	842	70	1,145	6,122
37 years	1,855	677	412	328	193	708	65	934	1	5,233
38 years	2,299	897	464	383	240	860	70	1,042	6,255
39 years	1,774	513	391	265	210	688	68	825	4,734
40 years	4,478	2,455	936	623	485	2,047	199	1,614	2	12,839
41 years	1,645	427	343	203	140	646	42	559	4,006
42 years	1,968	630	452	280	223	803	72	707	5,138
43 years	1,725	478	388	242	177	675	43	542	4,270
44 years	1,496	457	421	226	176	686	49	474	3,985
45 years	3,205	1,272	743	369	946	1,420	109	811	8,275
46 years	1,685	422	483	212	166	711	43	460	4,182
47 years	1,589	382	444	212	164	735	42	445	4,011
48 years	1,936	625	546	206	180	820	60	569	1	4,873
49 years	1,396	297	470	202	143	631	43	377	3,559

AGES BY SINGLE YEARS.—Continued.

	Insane.	Idiots.	Blind.	Deaf mutes.	Out-door poor.	Paupers in almshouses.	In charitable institutions.	Prisoners.	Juvenile delinquents.	Total.
50 years	3,708	1,368	1,151	456	483	1,993	199	821	10,179
51 years	1,231	244	348	153	96	600	32	259	2,963
52 years	1,506	378	541	195	192	760	68	332	3,972
53 years	1,269	252	523	178	142	652	49	272	3,337
54 years	1,283	318	513	185	140	697	54	329	3,427
55 years	1,928	541	751	250	256	1,086	86	329	5,227
56 years	1,246	292	569	155	197	744	66	233	3,502
57 years	979	174	448	153	123	621	53	168	2,719
58 years	1,077	265	544	193	192	718	71	166	3,226
59 years	874	143	429	123	136	619	54	143	2,521
60 to 69 years	72,554	39,833	19,651	14,487	7,604	32,937	4,002	48,209	29	239,306
60 years	2,512	858	1,439	325	630	2,053	332	307	8,456
61 years	812	115	454	105	123	697	109	107	2,522
62 years	894	165	557	132	200	782	165	104	2,999
63 years	842	166	587	124	199	758	134	97	2,907
64 years	727	133	580	114	202	713	170	91	2,730
65 years	1,513	341	964	191	457	1,507	297	132	5,402
66 years	599	98	587	127	196	747	194	82	2,630
67 years	647	120	545	128	241	783	250	64	2,778
68 years	727	129	663	127	279	875	273	60	3,133
69 years	533	80	635	109	277	719	220	49	2,622
70 years	1,285	275	1,482	239	677	1,832	518	77	6,385
71 years	400	52	490	71	170	664	184	27	2,058
72 years	471	92	627	114	284	792	258	27	2,665
73 years	419	44	650	79	258	696	250	36	2,436
74 years	358	51	679	86	258	689	225	10	2,356
75 years	589	130	1,005	127	528	1,137	355	22	3,893
76 years	345	52	644	76	264	718	242	8	2,349
77 years	292	38	530	57	213	573	204	12	1,919
78 years	286	48	663	58	171	610	235	15	2,186
79 years	256	36	635	48	227	541	207	14	1,964
80 years	515	109	1,277	108	612	1,168	370	15	4,174
81 years	136	20	419	35	159	356	142	5	1,272
82 years	149	29	467	41	177	387	181	3	1,434
83 years	148	19	396	38	178	291	99	1,169
84 years	121	18	450	31	163	270	93	6	1,152
85 years	151	30	519	30	206	312	91	2	1,341
86 years	91	12	297	31	124	202	70	4	831
87 years	73	6	258	18	97	130	48	1	631
88 years	43	11	239	26	102	153	44	1	619
89 years	35	4	173	16	67	88	25	1	409
90 years	75	18	409	21	155	230	46	4	948
91 years	16	3	104	4	24	44	13	1	209
92 years	22	2	107	6	38	49	24	1	249
93 years	22	2	68	1	36	44	15	188
94 years	13	6	61	7	32	28	11	152
95 years	23	97	8	54	53	13	1	255
96 years	10	3	55	2	26	38	4	138
97 years	11	33	3	26	15	5	93
98 years	7	2	63	1	12	15	6	1	97
99 years	3	1	27	4	10	5	5	55
100 years and over	50	8	373	27	174	152	22	806
60 years and over	16,221	3,326	20,298	2,895	8,426	21,906	6,149	1,381	80,602
Average age (in years).	43.5	25.6	49.3	26.9	45.1	30.3

WHERE FOUND.

It must be understood that work on this branch of the census is still in progress, and that there are still some omissions to be supplied and corrections to be made. This will explain the blank spaces in the table which follows. The figures given are worthy of confidence, except those for benevolent institutions, which are approximately correct, as stated above.

	Total.	NATIVE WHITE.		FOREIGN WHITE.		COLORED.	
		Male.	Fem.	Male.	Fem.	Male.	Fem.
<i>In hospitals for the insane :—</i>							
Insane	40,942						
Idiotic	1,141						
Blind	31						
Deaf and dumb	24						
Epileptic	2,127	887	589	320	202	89	40
Paralytic							
Prisoners	350						
<i>In training schools for idiots :—</i>							
Idiotic	2,429	1,352	1,012	29	23	9	4
Epileptic	233						
<i>In institutions for the blind :—</i>							
Blind pupils	2,158	983	887	160	84	32	12
<i>In institutions for the deaf :—</i>							
Deaf and dumb pupils	5,267	2,780	2,107	163	122	56	39
<i>In almshouses :—</i>							
Paupers	66,203	19,186	18,417	13,490	9,393	2,888	2,829
Insane	9,302						
Idiotic	5,837						
Blind	2,560						
Deaf and dumb	511						
Epileptic	2,600	972	917	284	176	127	124
Paralytic	1,648	558	288	489	143	95	75
<i>In benevolent institutions :—</i>							
Total inmates	54,816	21,602	24,426	2,801	4,445	762	780
Insane	235						
Idiotic	241						
Blind	484						
Deaf and dumb	79						
<i>In jails and in prisons :—</i>							
Prisoners	58,609	28,048	1,708	10,056	2,049	15,500	1,248
Insane	397						
Idiotic	47						
Blind	12						
Deaf and dumb	4						
<i>In juvenile reformatories :—</i>							
Juvenile delinquents	11,468	7,453	1,787	789	191	1,016	232
Blind	1						
<i>At home or in private care :—</i>							
Insane	41,083						
Idiotic	67,200						
Blind	43,682						
Deaf and dumb	27,993						
Paupers	21,565	7,581	8,085	1,649	2,013	1,060	1,307

TABLES RELATING TO THE INSANE.

The tables which follow seem to explain themselves sufficiently, without comment. The questions asked were sometimes very fully answered, sometimes not; but the number of failures to reply is indicated by the words "Not stated."

Separate tables have been prepared, exhibiting the statistics of institutions, apart from the general population; but I do not give them.

NUMBER OF ATTACKS OF INSANITY.

Items.	Total.	NATIVE WHITE.		FOREIGN WHITE.		COLORED.	
		Male.	Fem.	Male.	Fem.	Male.	Fem.
First attack	48,125	15,079	15,843	6,812	7,931	1,008	1,362
Two attacks	6,585	2,196	2,306	998	858	115	112
Three attacks	2,137	754	822	218	255	39	49
Four attacks	836	284	351	79	87	19	16
Five attacks	411	157	179	32	31	6	6
Six to ten attacks	658	242	245	54	68	17	32
Eleven attacks or more	722	254	311	31	52	31	43
Not stated	32,485	10,168	10,454	4,226	4,426	1,482	1,729

FORM OF INSANITY.

Mania	28,099	7,819	9,004	4,266	5,493	660	767
Monomania	14,407	4,324	5,549	1,942	2,108	198	286
Melancholia	1,487	548	396	253	193	62	45
Paresis	1,463	700	357	270	91	23	22
Dementia	20,942	7,151	6,819	2,691	3,128	513	640
Dipsomania	944	504	169	162	59	30	20
Epilepsy	6,842	2,868	2,321	598	456	314	285
Not stated	17,775	5,220	5,806	2,268	2,180	1,017	1,284

SUICIDAL AND HOMICIDAL TENDENCIES.

Epileptic only	5,784	2,348	2,006	509	411	267	243
Suicidal only	3,291	1,079	1,315	406	402	39	50
Homicidal only	4,541	1,846	1,327	665	414	159	130
Suicidal and homicidal	263	100	101	21	18	10	13
Epileptic and suicidal	531	310	116	47	15	25	18
Epileptic and homicidal	264	110	98	21	12	12	11
Epileptic, suicidal, and homicidal	1,082	411	424	107	97	23	20

INSANE RELATIVES.

On father's side	1,780	787	828	62	65	21	17
On mother's side	1,696	657	875	39	68	17	40
On both sides	409	175	208	9	13	3	1
No insane relatives	2,635						
Not stated	85,439						

RESTRAINT.

Items.	Total.	NATIVE WHITE.		FOREIGN WHITE.		COLORED.	
		Male.	Fem.	Male.	Fem.	Male.	Fem.
Straight jacket.....	1,164	221	481	137	269	25	31
Muff.....	674	232	181	143	88	6	24
Strap.....	904	241	293	136	147	48	39
Crib.....	171	48	84	12	26	1
Handcuffs.....	443	179	117	54	44	33	16
Ball and chain.....	254	119	61	11	8	30	25
Personal attendant.....	5,522	1,900	2,417	349	503	153	200
Not under restraint.....	48,592	15,535	16,098	6,521	7,521	1,271	1,646
Under restraint, form not stated.....	1,833	651	716	156	179	67	64
Question unanswered.....	32,402	10,008	10,063	4,931	4,923	1,174	1,303

SECLUSION.

By day and night...	560	164	189	54	75	34	44
By night only.....	15,440	5,370	4,925	2,319	2,068	367	391
Occasionally.....	497	162	198	44	54	25	14
In seclusion, form not stated.....	8,840	2,769	3,081	1,120	1,294	291	285
Not in seclusion.....	40,446	12,682	14,073	5,056	6,489	879	1,267
Not stated.....	26,176	7,987	8,045	3,857	3,728	1,211	1,348

INSANE WHO HAVE BEEN IN HOSPITALS FOR THE INSANE.

Now in institutions.....	40,942
Formerly in institutions....	14,712
Not stated.....	36,305

TABLES RELATING TO IDIOTS.

IDIOTS WHO ARE PARALYTIC OR EPILEPTIC.

Items.	Total.	NATIVE WHITE.		FOREIGN WHITE.		COLORED.	
		Male.	Fem.	Male.	Fem.	Male.	Fem.
Paralyzed on right side.....	4,194	812	585	40	25	140	72
Paralyzed on left side.....	195	643	466	37	19	112	83
Paralyzed on both sides.....	622	942	746	43	22	141	74
Epileptic.....	12,316	6,106	4,476	236	167	832	409

SIZE OF HEADS OF IDIOTS.

Large.....	10,486	5,679	3,044	322	169	907	365
Small.....	14,334	6,886	5,022	365	241	1,101	719
Natural.....	35,132	17,203	12,437	924	668	2,428	1,472
Not stated.....	16,943	7,340	5,722	709	585	1,445	1,142

USE OF HANDS.

Items.	Total.	NATIVE WHITE.		FOREIGN WHITE.		COLORED.	
		Male.	Fem.	Male.	Fem.	Male.	Fem.
Can feed themselves, but cannot dress themselves.....	6,280	3,108	2,579	81	60	275	177
Can dress themselves, but are incapable of labor.....	6,419	3,317	2,397	80	57	364	204
Can do coarse manual labor.....	15,095	8,579	4,359	335	149	1,179	494
Can perform skilled labor of any sort.	1,255	700	403	23	13	82	34
Not stated.....	47,846	21,404	16,487	1,801	1,384	3,981	2,789

USE OF FEET.

Cannot walk.....	4,106	2,106	1,623	46	29	185	117
Can walk, but badly.....	7,641	4,014	2,671	133	73	515	235
Can walk well.....	17,514	9,714	5,520	341	182	1,205	532
Not stated.....	47,634	21,274	16,411	1,800	1,379	3,976	2,794

USE OF LANGUAGE.

Cannot articulate at all.....	7,396	3,794	2,810	97	68	409	218
Articulate imperfectly.....	14,707	8,047	4,716	275	142	1,058	469
Speak intelligibly, if not well.....	7,673	4,245	2,469	188	89	467	215
Not stated.....	47,119	21,022	16,230	1,760	1,364	3,947	2,786

GRADATION OF IDIOTS, IN COMBINATION.

Use of Head and Use of Hand.	Totals	CANNOT SPEAK.			SPEAK IMPERFECTLY.			SPEAK WELL.		
		Cannot walk.	Walk imperfectly.	Walk well.	Cannot walk.	Walk imperfectly.	Walk well.	Cannot walk.	Walk imperfectly.	Walk well.
<i>Head abnormally small.....</i>	7,030	736	658	523	235	1,285	2,155	56	170	1,212
Can feed themselves.....	1,670	658	335	107	164	213	134	30	12	17
Can dress themselves.....	1,760	58	265	150	45	645	417	17	75	58
Can do coarse manual labor.....	3,343	16	56	246	25	416	1,518	6	77	953
Can do skilled labor.....	257	4	2	20	1	11	86	3	6	124
<i>Head abnormally large.....</i>	4,239	577	417	312	236	744	1,107	66	141	639
Can feed themselves.....	1,221	501	203	73	156	151	73	35	17	12
Can dress themselves.....	1,033	56	163	77	58	346	206	16	64	47
Can do coarse manual labor.....	1,822	15	47	145	21	240	777	11	56	510
Can do skilled labor.....	163	5	4	17	1	7	51	4	4	70
<i>Head natural.....</i>	16,397	1,138	1,041	1,226	530	2,379	5,170	121	450	4,342
Can feed themselves.....	3,051	1,015	503	318	334	434	296	63	43	45
Can dress themselves.....	3,294	95	391	295	121	1,057	844	21	147	323
Can do coarse manual labor.....	9,288	21	142	548	71	864	3,819	34	242	3,547
Can do skilled labor.....	764	7	5	65	4	24	211	3	18	427

GRADATION OF IDIOTS, IN COMBINATION,—CONCLUDED.

Use of Head and Use of Hand.	Total.	CANNOT SPEAK.			SPEAK IMPERFECTLY.			SPEAK WELL.		
		Cannot walk.	Walk imperfectly.	Walk well.	Cannot walk.	Walk imperfectly.	Walk well.	Cannot walk.	Walk imperfectly.	Walk well.
<i>Size of head not stated.</i>	653	53	46	50	30	78	181	6	22	187
Can feed themselves.....	138	50	22	11	19	14	10	6	1	5
Can dress themselves.....	134	2	23	10	8	32	41	6	12
Can do coarse manual labor.	349	1	27	3	32	124	15	147
Can do skilled labor.....	32	1	2	6	23
	28,319	2,504	2,162	2,111	1,031	4,486	8,613	249	783	6,380

IDIOTS WITH IDIOTIC RELATIVES.

Items.	Total.	NATIVE WHITE.		FOREIGN WHITE.		COLORED.	
		Male.	Fem.	Male.	Fem.	Male.	Fem.
On father's side.....	1,778	1,036	594	22	7	80	39
On mother's side.....	1,986	1,076	661	29	26	127	67
On both sides.....	717	420	259	5	2	23	8
No idiotic relatives.....	4,247
Not stated.....	68,167

MARITAL RELATIONS OF IDIOTS.

Single.....	70,157	34,472	24,115	1,995	1,354	5,173	3,048
Married.....	2,925	1,308	729	176	133	338	241
Widowed.....	1,119	244	461	47	104	79	184
Divorced.....	126	44	50	6	3	7	16
Not stated.....	2,568	1,040	870	96	69	284	209

IDIOTS WHO HAVE BEEN IN TRAINING-SCHOOLS.

Now in training-schools.....	2,429	1,352	1,012	29	23	9	4
Formerly in training-schools.....	809
Not stated.....	73,657

THE BLIND.

THE SEMI-BLIND.

	Total.	NATIVE WHITE.		FOREIGN WHITE.		COLORED.	
		Male.	Fem.	Male.	Fem.	Male.	Fem.
Totally blind.							
In institutions.....	1,339						
Outside of institutions.....	21,378						
Semi-blind.....							
In institutions.....	754						
Outside of institutions.....	10,958						
Not stated.....	14,499						

BLIND WHO HAVE BEEN IN INSTITUTIONS FOR THE BLIND.

Now in institutions.....	2,158	963	887	160	84	32	12
Formerly in institutions.....	2,533						
Not stated.....	44,237						

THE DEAF AND DUMB.

DEAF MUTES WHO HAVE BEEN IN INSTITUTIONS FOR THE DEAF.

Now in institutions.....	5,267	2,780	2,107	163	122	56	39
Formerly in institutions.....	6,887						
Not stated.....	21,724						

PAUPERS.

FORM OF DISABILITY OF PAUPERS IN ALMSHOUSES.

Able-bodied.....	22,806						
Disabled.....	30,130						
Not stated.....	13,113						
Reported as—							
Having relatives in almshouses.....	11,242						
Destitute.....	1,021						
Intemperate.....	6,994						
Insane.....	16,078						
Idiotic.....	5,777						
Blind.....	2,731						
Deaf and dumb.....	559						
Epileptic.....	2,660						
Paralytic.....	1,648						
Lame and crippled.....	4,885						
Suffering from wounds.....	64						
Sick.....	7,780						
Lying in.....	424						
Under 16 years of age.....	8,588						
Senile.....	7,959						

PRISONERS.

PRISONERS, WHERE FOUND.

	Total.	NATIVE WHITE.		FOREIGN WHITE.		COLORED.	
		Male.	Fem.	Male.	Fem.	Male.	Fem.
In penitentiaries	30,659
In county jails	12,687
In workhouses	7,869
In city prisons	1,666
On plantations or in gangs	4,879
In insane hospitals	350
In military prisons	499

CLASSIFICATION OF PRISONERS.

Awaiting trial
Serving out sentence
Awaiting execution
Awaiting removal to higher prison
Held as witness
Imprisoned for debt
Imprisoned for insanity
Not specified

CRIMES CHARGED.

<i>Offences against the Government:—</i>							
Mutiny and desertion	391	273	98
Counterfeiting, etc.	398	299	81	1	17
Violations of election laws	14	5	6	3
Violations of postal laws	149	115	1	20	12	1
Offences against the revenue	292	201	26	1	64
<i>Offences against Society:—</i>							
Violations of health act	3	1	2
Obstruction of justice (perjury)
Contempt of court, etc.	426	230	15	59	8	98	15
Violations of seventh commandment	10,137	481	231	151	76	166	32
Unlawful sale of liquor	144	85	9	39	3	8
Drunk and disorderly	3,331	1,254	354	918	647	111	47
Other offences against public morals	156	62	6	31	3	46	8
Disorderly conduct	1,700	428	204	461	443	91	73
Other offences against the peace ..	672	291	39	168	23	167	34
Vagrancy	1,941	696	130	714	227	117	57
Other offences against public policy	153	79	9	30	1	26	8
<i>Offences against the Person:—</i>							
Murder	3,724	1,642	71	616	27	1,246	122
Manslaughter	884	353	12	181	8	319	11
Assaults, all sorts	5,076	2,226	51	1,015	42	1,650	92
Mayhem	31	17	4	9	1
Rape	1,017	446	3	144	*1	423
Abortion	55	32	11	7	4	1
Other offences against the person ..	71	26	6	4	18	26
<i>Offences against Property:—</i>							
Arson	827	333	16	117	12	319	30
Burglary and burglars' tools	9,220	5,205	33	1,317	12	2,583	70
Robbery	1,736	1,108	13	289	2	307	17
Larceny, all kinds	17,198	8,597	274	2,270	264	5,450	343
Forgery	1,139	762	5	192	2	169	9
Frauds	461	286	1	86	3	83	2
Other offences against property ..	784	468	22	152	14	116	12

*Accessory.

CRIMES CHARGED,—CONTINUED.

	Total.	NATIVE WHITE.		FOREIGN WHITE.		COLORED.	
		Male.	Fem.	Male.	Fem.	Male.	Fem.
<i>Offences on the high seas:—</i>							
Piracy and desertion	10	3		5		2	
<i>Miscellaneous:—</i>							
Offences not classified or not stated	4,789	1,776	135	740	207	1,735	196

SENTENCES.

<i>Short term sentences:—</i>	11,160	4,654	734	2,803	1,210	1,457	302
In penitentiaries	1,243	607	81	341	108	93	13
In county jails	3,257	1,563	155	648	176	614	101
In workhouses	5,834	2,300	469	1,700	890	362	113
In city prisons	534	168	26	108	34	154	44
On plantations or in gangs	278	11	2	1		233	31
In insane hospitals	9	3	1	2	2	1	
In military prisons	5	2		3			
Aggregate sentence (in years) ..	6,033	2,787	334	1,444	463	908	96
Average sentence (in days)	197	219	166	188	140	228	116
<i>Long term sentences:—</i>	31,925	16,126	270	4,484	142	10,422	481
In penitentiaries	26,961	14,929	231	4,148	114	7,139	390
In county jails	530	286	9	53	2	159	21
In workhouses	309	167	25	33	13	65	6
In city prisons	11	5	1			4	1
On plantations or in gangs	3,435	336	1	41		2,994	63
In insane hospitals	221	82	3	99	13	24	
In military prisons	468	321		110		37	
Aggregate sentences (in years) ..	69,569						
Average sentences (in years) ..	5.18						
<i>Sentenced for life:—</i>	1,615	613	25	320	18	609	30
<i>Sentenced to execution:—</i>	80						
<i>Sentenced to pay fine:—</i>	5,178	2,460	289	1,204	360	731	134
In penitentiaries	1,005	623	32	203	43	95	9
In county jails	1,527	844	58	276	36	280	24
In workhouses	2,105	788	177	608	267	195	70
In city prisons	422	195	21	117	14	87	18
On plantations or in gangs	119	10	1			95	13
Aggregate fines imposed	\$452,422	\$269,349	\$10,373	\$83,772	\$8,978	\$72,953	\$6,997
Average fine imposed	87.37	109.49	35.89	69.58	24.94	99.80	52.22

IMPRISONMENT IN REFORMATORIES.

Number of inmates	11,468	7,453	1,787	789	191	1,016	232
Duration of imprisonment not stated ..	1,957	1,369	251	155	40	116	25
Duration of imprisonment stated ..	9,511	6,084	1,535	634	151	900	207
Aggregate imprisonment to June 1, 1880 (in years) ..	19,282	11,684	4,013	1,216	403	1,570	393
Average imprisonment to June 1, '80 ..	2y 291d	1y 337d	2y 226d	1y 337d	2y 248d	1y 274d	1y 329d
Average age of inmates	13.50	13.38	13.50	13.91	13.67	13.84	14.23

TABLE SHOWING THE YEAR IN WHICH PERSONS ARE REPORTED TO HAVE BECOME INSANE, ETC.

	INSANE.		IDIOTS.			BLIND.			DEAF AND DUMB.		
	Total.	Non-congenital.	Total.	Congenital.	Non-congenital.	Total.	Congenital.	Non-congenital.	Total.	Congenital.	Non-congenital.
1879-1880.....	5,127	5,127	136	136	961	961	52	52
1878-1879.....	5,816	5,816	363	160	203	1,557	121	1,436	109	46	63
1877-1878.....	5,765	5,765	565	294	271	1,943	69	1,874	207	105	102
1876-1877.....	4,821	4,821	837	481	356	1,780	70	1,610	300	130	170
1875-1876.....	4,211	4,211	1,055	620	435	1,682	82	1,600	414	202	212
1874-1875.....	4,221	4,221	1,178	718	460	1,798	72	1,726	472	203	269
1873-1874.....	5,347	5,347	1,328	778	550	1,359	93	1,266	750	271	479
1872-1873.....	2,827	2,827	1,422	859	563	1,240	80	1,160	1,168	348	820
1871-1872.....	2,857	2,857	1,609	988	621	1,299	90	1,209	1,067	372	695
1870-1871.....	1,981	1,981	1,495	902	593	947	101	846	769	391	378
1869-1870.....	3,520	3,520	1,993	1,278	715	1,790	117	1,673	751	392	359
1868-1869.....	1,974	1,674	1,470	898	572	822	105	717	665	340	325
1867-1868.....	1,945	1,945	2,020	1,406	614	974	130	844	721	363	358
1866-1867.....	1,308	1,308	1,776	1,185	591	775	108	677	710	313	397
1865-1866.....	1,215	1,215	1,817	1,289	528	801	107	694	794	351	443
1864-1865.....	1,958	1,958	1,813	1,216	597	1,187	108	1,079	797	310	487
1863-1864.....	1,028	1,028	1,929	1,337	592	770	113	657	776	333	443
1862-1863.....	808	808	1,672	1,146	526	687	107	580	692	317	375
1861-1862.....	873	873	2,070	1,529	541	616	123	493	642	386	256
1860-1861.....	679	679	1,602	1,181	421	480	100	380	470	293	177
1859-1860.....	1,780	1,780	2,366	1,743	623	904	108	796	527	342	185
1858-1859.....	631	631	1,673	1,295	378	451	112	339	436	273	163
1857-1858.....	574	574	1,930	1,543	387	442	93	349	484	306	178
1856-1857.....	525	525	1,600	1,258	342	377	82	295	402	257	145
1855-1856.....	477	477	1,517	1,187	330	347	82	265	422	284	138
1854-1855.....	879	879	1,988	1,635	353	435	75	360	349	210	139
1853-1854.....	373	373	1,270	1,010	260	251	57	194	382	230	152
1852-1853.....	342	342	1,065	840	225	274	65	209	303	195	108
1851-1852.....	337	337	1,270	1,050	240	267	64	203	349	221	128
1850-1851.....	276	276	724	507	217	209	53	156	260	142	118
1849-1850.....	693	693	2,131	1,864	267	394	84	310	453	329	124
1848-1849.....	259	259	641	464	177	184	37	147	219	118	101
1847-1848.....	233	233	805	645	160	168	42	126	264	169	95
1846-1847.....	181	181	682	522	160	143	39	104	221	135	86
1845-1846.....	180	180	638	488	150	141	28	113	230	144	86
1844-1845.....	292	292	1,521	1,352	169	188	62	126	308	202	106
1843-1844.....	169	169	659	525	134	155	55	100	237	147	90
1842-1843.....	118	118	553	440	113	125	38	87	209	128	81
1841-1842.....	126	126	737	599	138	125	38	87	215	141	74
1840-1841.....	99	99	463	343	120	106	32	74	153	101	52
1839-1840.....	114	314	1,793	1,647	146	207	79	128	318	237	81
1838-1839.....	79	79	366	277	89	116	36	80	219	83	56
1837-1838.....	86	86	473	390	83	101	27	74	158	113	45
1836-1837.....	68	68	362	304	58	89	31	58	135	89	46
1835-1836.....	73	73	356	274	82	80	33	47	125	79	46
1834-1835.....	108	108	946	861	85	115	53	62	188	139	49
1833-1834.....	56	56	330	259	71	89	34	55	141	82	59
1832-1833.....	61	61	314	258	76	74	28	46	126	71	55
1831-1832.....	39	39	379	329	50	69	33	36	167	108	49
1830-1831.....	38	38	240	187	53	51	22	29	105	67	38
1829-1830.....	93	93	995	920	75	114	55	59	200	158	42
1828-1829.....	38	38	187	146	41	48	15	33	93	63	30
1827-1828.....	31	31	286	251	35	59	24	35	111	71	40
1826-1827.....	15	15	207	168	39	45	18	27	95	61	34
1825-1826.....	21	21	253	218	35	37	17	20	95	70	25

TABLE SHOWING THE YEAR IN WHICH PERSONS ARE REPORTED TO HAVE BECOME INSANE, ETC.,—Continued.

	INSANE.		IDIOTS.			BLIND.			DEAF AND DUMB.		
	Total.	Non-congenital.	Total.	Congenital.	Non-congenital.	Total.	Congenital.	Non-congenital.	Total.	Congenital.	Non-congenital.
1824-1825.....	23	23	406	367	38	67	30	37	120	96	24
1823-1824.....	20	20	203	181	22	44	24	20	88	60	28
1822-1823.....	14	14	128	104	24	40	14	26	98	59	30
1821-1822.....	11	11	217	181	36	42	18	24	100	73	27
1820-1821.....	12	12	112	77	35	35	14	21	67	50	17
1819-1820.....	17	17	598	565	33	72	42	30	147	117	30
1818-1819.....	3	3	87	67	20	32	8	24	54	33	21
1817-1818.....	7	7	124	105	19	38	15	23	73	47	26
1816-1817.....	3	3	122	95	27	31	9	22	77	42	35
1815-1816.....	8	8	94	84	10	32	8	24	73	40	33
1814-1815.....	8	8	227	215	12	48	21	27	83	63	20
1813-1814.....	5	5	67	53	14	27	16	11	49	30	19
1812-1813.....	5	5	73	65	8	21	9	12	45	27	18
1811-1812.....	90	81	9	25	5	20	56	40	15
1810-1811.....	1	1	52	46	6	23	11	12	43	33	10
1809-1810.....	2	2	154	145	9	44	24	20	81	70	11
1808-1809.....	3	3	32	27	5	21	6	15	36	24	12
1807-1808.....	1	1	54	52	2	23	11	13	46	36	11
1806-1807.....	29	23	6	19	8	11	15	12	3
1805-1806.....	35	33	2	14	5	9	27	21	6
1804-1805.....	1	1	79	72	7	20	11	9	37	33	4
1803-1804.....	27	24	3	15	5	10	23	21	2
1802-1803.....	23	21	2	12	7	5	11	10	1
1801-1802.....	27	22	5	12	6	6	10	9	1
1800-1801.....	21	19	2	8	4	4	7	6	1
1799-1800.....	47	46	1	22	15	7	23	22	1
1798-1799.....	9	7	2	6	3	3	10	7	3
1797-1798.....	16	16	8	6	2	11	7	4
1796-1797.....	11	11	3	2	1	6	6
1795-1796.....	9	8	1	9	7	2	4	3	1
1794-1795.....	12	12	2	2	4	4
1793-1794.....	3	3	2	1	1	7	7
1792-1793.....	2	1	1	1	1	1	1
1791-1792.....	8	7	1	2	1	1	3	2	1
1790-1791.....	2	2	2	1	1	1	1
1789-1790.....	4	4	6	6	3	3
1788-1789.....	3	2	1
1787-1788.....	2	2
1786-1787.....
1785-1786.....	1	1
1784-1785.....	4	4	1	1	4	4
1783-1784.....	1	1	1	1
1782-1783.....
1781-1782.....	1	1
1780-1781.....
1779-1780.....	4	4
1778-1779.....
1777-1778.....
1776-1777.....
1775-1776.....
1774-1775.....	1
1773-1774.....	2
1772-1773.....
1771-1772.....
1770-1771.....

INDEX OF SUBJECTS.

- Abandonment of Children, 165.
 Alabama, board to inspect convict camps, 20.
 Almsgiving Societies, 73.
 Almshouses, Management of, in New England, 300; salaries of keepers, 306.
 Ames, C. G., 344.
 Appropriations, State: for Minnesota, 42; for Michigan, 40; for Rhode Island, 54.
 Arkansas, State report, 20.
 Associated Charities: in Washington, 25; of Boston, number of families reported, 69; not a relief society, 69.
 Australia, boarding out of children, 130.
 Auxiliary Visitors, 123; plan for work of, 123.
 Baker, T. B. L., 321.
 Barstow, Gov., 57.
 Belgium, population to square mile, 7.
 Benedikt, Moriz, 256.
 Biddle, Cadwalader, 52.
 Blind, Schools for the: in Arkansas, 21; in Colorado, 22; in Michigan, 38; in Nebraska, 44.
 Blue Ribbon Movement, 274.
 Board of Corrections and Charities: in Michigan, 35; in Minnesota, 41.
 Board of Health, Lunacy, and Charity, 10.
 Board of Public Charities for Pennsylvania, 52.
 Board of State Charities for Ohio, 50.
 Boarding out of children in Australia and Tasmania, 130.
 Boys, Can we Save Them? 102.
 Brooklyn, N.Y., juvenile arrests in, 285.
 Browne, Walter Raleigh, resolution concerning, 322.
 Business Committees, report of, 320, 322, 328.
 California, State report, 21.
 Carson, Dr. J. C., 47.
 Chace, Geo. L., 53.
 Chapin, Dr. J. B., 47, 392.
 Charitable institutions of St. Louis, 59.
 Charity Organization Societies: cities having them, 12; in District of Columbia, 24; of New York City, 67; visitors, how secured, 70; conference meetings, 72; dangers attending almsgiving in, 77; co-operation of churches with, 80; discussion of, 329, 335; essential features of, 330; co-operation of Catholics, 331; relation to existing relief societies, 337; views of business men, 336; reports to Central Office, 338; in Louisville, Ky., 340; the positive work of, 341; the scattering of beggars, 342; writings upon, 344.
 Children's Aid Society, work of, 143.
 Children's Day, 116.
 Child-saving: none in Utah, 57; report of committee on, 115; salaried women visitors, 127; boarding out of infants, 127; Scotch method of placing children, 128; mortality of Irish orphans, 130; in Michigan, 132; in summer homes and sanitarium, 150; legislation in Spain concerning, 174; discussion of, 354.
 Chronic insane, care of in Wisconsin, 371.
 Collins, Dr. G. W., 43.
 Commitment of children, necessity of stricter classification in, 17.
 Committees: announcement of, 320; on business, 320; on organization, 320; on time and place, 320; on statistics, 392; to memorialize Congress, 403; standing committees, 404.
 Committee on Statistics: resolution to create, 372; members of, 392.
 Committee on Time and Place: organization of, 320; reports of, 370, 380.
 Concealed weapons, carrying of, 374, 377.
 Contract System: abolished in New Jersey, 46; in Ohio, 50.
 Convict labor, 326.
 Cook, Mrs. W. A., 25.
 Corsica, murders in, 276.
 Criminals, treatment of, 272.
 Dakota, State report, 22.
 Denison, Edward, 344.
 Dewing, William G., 345.
 Discharged prisoners, State agent for, 38.
 District of Columbia: general report, 24; relief-giving societies in, 73.
 Dix, Miss M. O., 352.
 Domestic work for boys, 348, 350, 351, 352.
 Doren, Dr. G. A., 47.
 Eastman, James H., 53.
 Economy in building institutions, 41.
 Elmira Reformatory, 327.
 Emigration, as affecting charitable and penal work, 48.
 England, proportion of penal sentences to population, 119.
 Expenditures for relief of poor in Massachusetts, 33.
 Expenditures in Industrial Schools, 120.
 Fields, Mrs. J. T., 344.
 Flower Mission days in Nebraska jails, 325.
 Foreign writers, resolution of thanks to, 362.
 France: number of institutions for children, 120; cost of same, 121; new bill for protection of children, 121; prisons in, 278; penitentiary commission of, 280; departmental prisons of, 280; separate system in prisons, 281; Société Générale de Patronage, 281.
 Funds of charitable institutions, 46.
 Girls' Industrial Home, St. Louis, 354.
 Good Shepherd, Asylum of, 39.
 Greene, Hon. Henry L., 53.
 Gurteen, Rev. S. H., 344.
 Hardenberg, Hon. A. A., 45.
 Harrison, C. M., 45.
 Hayward, W. S., 53.
 Hebrews, protective associations of, Oregon, 52.
 Helme, George W., 45.
 Homes, necessity of securing for children in reformatories, 36.
 Howard Association, greeting from, 272.
 Howe, F. M., 53.

- Hoyt, Henry M., 52.
 Hubbard, Gov. Lucius F., 41.
- Idiocy, discussion of, 366.
 Idiots and Feeble-minded: education of, 36; provision for in Nebraska, 45; new institution for in Ohio, 51; no provision for in Utah, 56; provision for, 246; number and distribution of, 246; increase of, 247; in institutions, 247; degrees and grades of, 248; types of, 249; the obligation of society to, 253; percentage of, 255; institutional care, 258; plan of buildings for, 259; communities of, 261; obligation of civilized society to, 264; justice for, 269; cottage system for, 366; educational plans for, 366; appropriation for in Kentucky, 367; industrial school for, Ohio, 367; gratifying results of training, 368; provisions for in Iowa, 368; governmental views concerning, 369.
 Illinois, State report, 27.
 Imbeciles: school for in Minnesota, 41; congenital, 258; school for in Minnesota, 369.
 Immigrants, at port of Philadelphia, 53.
 Inebriates, 257.
 Industrial art, 211.
 Industrial Education Association of New York, 221.
 Industrial Training: advocated for reform schools, 17; in England, 207; in Italy, 208; in Germany, 208; in Austria, 208; in the Tyrol, 209; in Athens, 209; list of industries taught, 210; in America, 210; in Paris, 217; in Cooper Union, 220.
 Industrial School for Girls: in Wisconsin, 355; in Illinois, 362.
 Insane Asylums: in Arkansas, 21; in Colorado, 22; in Dakota, 23; in Jacksonville and Kanakkee, Ill., 28; in Michigan, 38; in Nebraska, 44; in New Jersey, 45; asylum for insane convicts, 46; in Ohio, 50; in Oregon, 52; in Utah, 56; in Vermont, 57; in Wisconsin, 58.
 Insanity: improvement in treatment of, 13; trial by jury, 28; cottage system, 28; homeopathic treatment of, 30; women physicians in insane hospitals, 31; women as trustees of insane hospitals, 31; almshouses for the insane, 32; insane patients in poorhouses, 36; mechanical restraint abandoned in Ohio, 40; compensation of insane labor, 222; occupation as a remedial agent, 224; diversity of occupation, 225; adequate compensation for labor, 226; value of labor at asylum on Ward's Island, 227; increase of, 228; effect of race upon, 230; cause for increase of, 231; small ratio of, among negroes, 232; ratio of, to the population, 233; defined, 236; care of, 240; proportion of sane to insane, 241; mechanical restraint should be diminished, 243; employment, 244; occupation for women, 394; National asylum, 395; necessity of supervisors, 396; ratio of insanity in America compared with Great Britain, 399; discussion on insanity, 393-403.
 International Prison Committee, letters with reference to, 381.
 Introductory Addresses, 1-8.
- Jails: in Michigan, 35; labor in, 373; reform necessary, 378.
 Juke Family, The, 254.
 Juvenile crime, 285.
 Juvenile Offenders: Massachusetts system of dealing with commended, 18; district jails for, 28; treatment of, 195; classification of, 198.
- Kenyon, Dr. Job, 53.
- Ladies' Relief Society, Oregon, 52.
 Louisville, Report of Charity Organization Society, 340.
- Lowell, Mrs. C. R., 344.
 Lunacy Act of Pennsylvania, 323.
 Luther, Dr. Diller, resignation of, 52.
 Lyman School for Boys, 30.
- Maine, State report of, 29.
 Manual Training School, St. Louis, 358.
 Massachusetts State report, 29; Reformatory, for men, 30.
 Matrons for institutions, 360.
 Michigan, State report of, 35; Industrial Home for Girls of, 39; State Public School, 117; laws for protection of children, 118; organization of State Public School, 135; statistics of State Public School, 138, 139.
 Minnesota, State report, 41; New York children in, 148.
 Minutes and Discussions, 319.
 Missionary work among the negroes, 391.
 Mississippi, The, type of Conference, 8.
 Mitchell, E. Corbée, 52.
 Moggridge, N. M., 344.
 Morton, Dr. Thomas G., 52.
 Mullin, Samuel C., 43.
 Mute Schools: in Arkansas, 21; in Colorado, 22; in Dakota, 24; in Jacksonville, Ill., 27; in Michigan, 38; in Nebraska, 44.
- Nebraska, State report, 43.
 New Jersey, State report, 45; State Reform School, 80.
 Newsboys' Night School, Kansas City, 355.
 New South Wales, boarding out of children, 130.
 New York State Board of Charities, 10; State report, 46; death-rate of children in, 153; juvenile arrests in, 285.
 Norway, Reformatories for Youth in, 104.
 Number of persons in institutions in United States, 9.
- Objects of charity organization, 65.
 Ohio, State report, 49.
 Oregon, State report, 52.
 Orphan asylums, proper functions of, 361.
 Out-door relief, discontinuance of, in Brooklyn, 335.
- Pauper children removed from New York poorhouses through efforts of W. P. Letchworth, 8.
 Pauper immigration, effect of Congressional Act of 1882, 48.
 Pauperism, increase of, 371.
 Paupers, separation of, 298.
 Pauper shipments, necessity of controlling by legislation, 16.
 Pawnbrokers, 286.
 Pendleton, Hon. James M., 53.
 Penitentiaries: in Dakota, 23, 389; territorial, 23; in Nebraska, 43, 380; in Ohio, 50; in New Jersey, 90; in North Carolina, 133; discussion of, 383; in Missouri, 385; in Illinois, 388.
 Pennsylvania, State report, 52.
 Piper, Miss Lizzie, 25.
 Pistols, carrying of, 276.
 Placing children in homes, 360.
 Placing out children in the West, 143; in Tasmania, 130.
 Poland, Guardianship of Minors in, 177.
 Police Matrons, 293.
 Police System in Utah, 56.
 Police, The, and Juvenile Crime, 285; effects of frequent changes, 288.
 Poor Farms, Location of, 295.
 Poorhouses, improvement of in Michigan, 35; management of, 295; selection of overseers for, 298; inspection of, 299; discussion of, 363; discipline in, 364.
 Poor Man's Free Labor Bureau, 333.
 Pratt, A. S., 25.

- Pratt, Dr. Foster, 398.
 President's Address, 9.
 Prisoners: separation of, 274; convictions of, in France, 277; cumulative sentences of, 283.
 Prison System: grading of, in Ohio, 50; in Utah, 55; New Jersey, contract system in, 91.
 Progressive punishment system, 204; in France, 276; discussion of, 373.
 Prostitutes, 257.
 Provident Association of Boston, 339; of St. Louis, 329, 332.
 Public Health Association: communication to, 320; resolution from, 333.
 Public moneys, better accounting of, 47.
 Public School, State, in Michigan, 39.
 Publication fund, necessity for, 363.
 Reception, Addresses at, 307.
 Reformatories and Houses of Refuge: none in Utah, 55; report of committee on, 84; cottage plan for institutions, 84; contract labor in, 85; management of, 87; inmates afterward found in prison, 89; administration of, 92; necessity of placing under State regulation, 94; salary of officers, 94; education of sub-officers in, 96; economy in, 97; inspection and comparative reports, 97; to be used as recruiting service for army and navy, 98; discipline in, 100; offenders discharged from, in Great Britain, 120; objections to sending children to, on first conviction, 200; cost of, per inmate in England, 201; statistics of, for Great Britain, 202; duty of parents supporting children in, 205; discussion upon, 346.
 Reform Schools: at Westborough, Mass., 30; in Michigan, 38; system of grading in, 43; Lord Norton on, 119; Pennsylvania laws in reference to, 347; in Minnesota, 349; in Ohio, 349.
 Relief work, 77.
 Renwick, Arthur, views with reference to institutions for children, 126.
 Reports of States, discussion of, 322.
 Resolutions: on formation of committees, 319; sent to American Public Health Association, 320; on death of Walter Raleigh Browne, 322; of Business Committee, 322, 328; from Public Health Association, 333; with reference to portraits for volume of Proceedings, 346; thanks to foreign writers, 362; of Committee on Time and Place, 369; to establish Committee on Statistics, 372; to memorialize Congress, 382; thanks to Howard Association and Société Générale, 405; of thanks to citizens of St. Louis, etc., 405; of thanks to officers of Conference, 407; of congratulations to Sir Moses Montefiore, 408.
 Response to Addresses of Welcome, 5, 7.
 Responses at Reception, 311, 312, 314, 316.
 Rhode Island, State report, 53.
 Sack Mission, 380.
 St. Louis in 1852, 6; Catholic charities of, 159.
 Salvation Army, 274.
 Senthal Home for Widows, 25.
 Sisters Talcott, 25.
 Sheriff's fees, 37, 275, 325, 375.
 Smith, Miss Anna, 25.
 Société Générale, work accomplished for Children, 121.
 State Boards of Charity and Correction, necessity of, 11; in Illinois, 27; recommended by the Governor of Maine, 29.
 State Council of Charities and Corrections in New Jersey, 45.
 State Board of Charities: none in Nebraska, 45; in Wisconsin, 53.
 State wards, visiting of, 123.
 Statistical Tables: necessity of uniformity in, 11; of criminals, insane, paupers, and defectives, 9; of Ohio institutions, 51; of crime, 292.
 Sumner, Dr. Jeannette J., 25.
 Sweden, Reformatories for Youth in, 190.
 Tasmania, boarding out of children, 130.
 Tenement houses, 290.
 Tennessee, State report, 54.
 Tenth Census, results of special inquiry, etc., 365.
 Tenure of Office: efficiency secured by stability, 41; growing sentiment in favor of same, 47.
 Tramps, 256.
 Tuke, Dr. D. H., 392.
 Twelfth Conference, discussion concerning, 370.
 United States Prisons, 379.
 Utah, State report, 54.
 Vermont, State report, 57.
 Volunteer Visiting, how to make it effective, 69.
 Weaver, Mrs. M. A., 25.
 Welcome, by W. G. Eliot, 1; of Conference to Missouri, 1.
 Wilbur, Dr. C. T., 36.
 Wilbur, Hervey B., 246.
 Wilmarth, Dr. A. W., 256.
 Wisconsin, State report, 58.
 Wise, Dr. P. M., 47.
 Woman's National Temperance Union, 46.
 Woman's work in Nebraska, 44.
 Women, importance of having them on State Boards of Control, 14.
 Workhouses of Pennsylvania and St. Louis, 375.

ERRATA.

Page 295, read H. H. instead of H. W. Giles.

Page 351, read Mrs. Wardner instead of Mrs. Warner.

Pages 374, 375, read Tallack instead of Tallock.

